THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

MARCH 15, 1924

Social Politics

Taking the Queue Out of Quota

An Interview with W. W. Husband
Commissioner-General of Immigration

Mapping the Federal Service

Julia C. Lathrop

Underpinning the Platforms

Samuel McCune Lindsay

Ghosts v. Children

Geddes Smith

COMMUNITIES
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SOCIAL PRACTICE

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A Glimpse Ahead

FOUR hundred and fifty friends and readers of The Survey turned out last week to what we called our G. P. dinner. Gifford Pinchot. Giant Power.

An edition of 30,000 copies of the Giant Power number of Survey Graphic came from the press—all but double our ordinary run.

An indefinite number of people heard Governor Pinchot over the radio.

Methods, all three, of interpreting the forecasts the engineers have been making. The revolutionary technical advances in high power transmission have of course been discussed in professional circles; here was a first attempt in a rounded way to appraise their human significance—their social and industrial bearings; and to bring the layman abreast the engineer.

Dinner and number proved altogether more opportune than we could have anticipated when we planned them some nine months ago. With the naval oil scandal—with water power fights in California and New York—with the first giant power survey in Pennsylvania—with the President reopening the question of the forest land grants in the Northwest. Governor Pinchot's address illuminated much that lies back of the day's newspaper headlines as well as what lies five years ahead of the news. Giant Power recasts "conservation of natural resources" in terms of energy and social welfare; in terms of a new decade.

And in turn, our hope is that the dinner and number will provoke interest in the magazine itself and in the cooperative organization that is publishing it. A mutual journal conceived as an educational institution is itself something fairly new under the sun; and one which has built up a membership of 1,500, a subscription list of 15,000 is, we hope, worth looking into and taking part in.

THE Giant Power Number of Survey Graphic is an example of our work; more, of the fundamentals on which such a membership supports it. We carry out investigations (such field work as Mrs. Bruère's). We pool experience (in this instance, what has been done from ten to twenty years ahead of the rest of the continent in California and Ontario). We afford a forum for discussion (the cases for federal, state and inter-state control, for public and private ownership, are all given a hearing). We chronicle events (in this instance 5 years ahead of the news). We serve as interpreter (in this instance, as go-between—between the engineers and economists, employers, labor leaders, educators, inventors, social workers, householders and farmers). We employ the graphic arts to help to do the interpreting (maps, charts, drawings and work portraits)—as so much sign language in translating one great sphere of human concern to another.

Now if our readers bought dynamos or by-product plants or such like, this special number would have been double its size; and the second half would have been trade advertising. And we should be rich, thank you. But social problems are not patentable—nor are social inventions in the advertising market. The Survey is maintained by those who believe, none the less, that it is important to keep up such a carrier of intelligence and discussion; and to maintain it in the same way that you would maintain a university department, over and above the cost of tuition fees.

THAT is a new idea which must give a wrench to the imagination before it makes an effective tug at the pocket-book.

THE cost is modest. The Giant Power Number of Survey Graphic fell in the province of our Industrial Department. This department last year had a budget of $4,000, this year one of $6,000, an increase of $2,000 to enable it to do a calibre of work such as this Giant Power Number suggests.

100—$10 Cooperating Subscriptions
10—$50 Contributions
5—$100 Contributions, would together cover this additional sum.

Our Industrial Department is made possible by readers of The Survey who contribute to this special fund and believe in it. Our hope is that this Giant Power Number will give a wrench to the imaginations of enough more readers, a tug to enough more pocket-books, to cover the $2,000 needed. You who read this know better than we what you can afford; how deep your interest has been engaged. Can we count you in?

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The Gist of It

IT WAS difficult at best to chart the probable course of legislation through the cross-currents of insurgency, reaction and compromise which stir the Sixty-Eighth Congress, and pouring oil on the troubled waters has not noticeably lulled the waves.

BUT there are some buoys and markers that reveal the drift. This number, therefore, is largely devoted to an attempt to discover how far we have got, and where in general we are at, in dealing with certain legislative and political problems of special interest to Survey readers.

W. W. HUSBAND, commissioner-general of immigration, served a long apprenticeship in this service—particularly as secretary of the United States Immigration Commission. His observations on some essentials in progress in handling this perplexing matter (p. 667), grow out of intimate knowledge of the operation of the quota law.

SURVEY readers know well Samuel McCune Lindsay, professor of social legislation at Columbia University, and remember his close association with the Progressive Party, whose platform-making did much to change the temper of the relations between social fact and political tactics (p. 671).

JULIA LATHROP, now traveling in South America, included her illuminating discussion of federal reclassification (p. 676) in an address delivered before the annual meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League.

CAROLYN FRANCES KENNEDY is the pseudonym of an American social worker now engaged in a roving commission in Europe which took her, for a time, into Hungary (p. 687).

NOT WITHOUT its parallel in American life is the situation of the French farmer, as presented (p. 691) by a correspondent who is already well known to Survey readers as professor of American civilization at the Sorbonne.

THE UNDERGRADUATE who discusses himself and his fellows (p. 694) is a student at Dartmouth College, where, if report be correct, a new spirit of free inquiry prevails. Dexter M. Keezer (p. 695) will be remembered for his whimsical observations on Real Wages in The Survey for January 15, 1924.

THE CAREFUL studies of Dr. Rubinow, executive director of the Jewish Welfare Society of Philadelphia, throw new light on the medical factors in social case work (p. 702).

FRANCES N. HARRISON (p. 705) is executive secretary of the Community Health Center of Philadelphia, which is celebrating this week its third anniversary.

PENNSYLVANIA (with due deliberation) has swung into line with the 28 other states which have created children's code commissions to study and revise the laws concerning children, so that statute-books may reflect in some degree the best thinking of today about child welfare instead of the best thinking of our grandfathers. Pennsylvania has, to the regret of The Survey, been shrewd in the choice of an executive for this new commission: Miss Deardorff, associate editor for social practice, and associate professor of social economy in the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research at Bryn Mawr, will assume the duties of that office at the close of the college term. Her service to The Survey will, by unfortunate necessity, close this spring. Miss Deardorff's experience as staff member and later assistant director of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research, chief of the division of vital statistics in the Philadelphia Bureau of Health, and assistant to the director general of civilian relief (later the general manager) of the American Red Cross, qualifies her admirably for this new service to Pennsylvania children.

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Drawn by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

You can't come in. The quota for 1620 is full.

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

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Taking the Queue Out of Quota

An Interview with W. W. Husband, Commissioner-General of Immigration

THE word quota (once an unobstrusive plaything of the statisticians) has gone into politics. It bobs up every day in the headlines. It once symbolized a logical formula (too logical, if anything) for adjusting immigration and assimilation. But it has become a shibboleth for many warring interests. To the A. F. of L. and the xenophobes, it has become a symbol of safety and defense. To the Nordics, fulminating on the borderland between science and mythology, it is a heaven-sent talisman. To the immigration inspector at Ellis Island it has been, for two hectic years, a nightmare. To unhappy Europeans, eyes fixed on what Victorian Americans called the land of promise, it has become the flaming sword at the gate of Eden. But so far as the signs of the times are legible, "quota" has come to stay.

The present quota law expires June 30, 1924. In the new law, on which Congress is now working, two questions must be answered. Whom shall we admit? That question involves the definition and statistical basis of the quota, and this article is not concerned with it. The second is not less important: How shall we handle them? There is wide disagreement, in Congress and out, as to immigration policy in general. But there is pretty general agreement that the bungling provisions of the existing law, which have led directly to needless personal hardships and harassing difficulties of administration, must be put straight before July 1. There must be no more first-of-the-month stampedes in the harbor of New York; no more unnecessary strain on the limited facilities of the ports of entry; no more silly technicalities tending to break up families and always leading to sensational publicity which, at best, diverts attention from graver issues.

What has two years' experience taught as to the decent, fair and workable method of applying the quota plan? What are the three or four most important changes which should find place in any new immigration law? These questions The Survey put to W. W. Husband, commissioner-general of immigration, whose annual report for 1923 carried his own general conclusion that:

"The quota limit law has created new and in some instances difficult problems for the Immigration Service, as it has intensified already existing problems, particularly that of preventing illegal entries over the land boundaries and at seaports. On the whole, however, its administration has been attended with fewer difficulties than during the preceding fiscal year, and if the law were amended in some particulars it is doubtful whether any other equally effective method of restricting immigration could be devised that would present fewer administrative difficulties or cause less hardships to aliens or inconvenience to their friends in the United States."

"Count the quota overseas," was the commissioner's first answer. In all the important bills pending in House and Senate it is proposed that American consuls shall issue quota certificates to applicants who satisfy certain requirements. One of these certificates, good for a specified period (two months or more), admits the holder to the official quota for his nationality. It does not guarantee that he will be admitted; that depends on

COMMISSIONER HUSBAND'S MINIMUM PROGRAM

1. *Count quotas overseas through consular certificates*
2. *Make the quota continuous by proper spacing of certificates*
3. *Give colonials and children a flexible status*
4. *Leave room for experimenting, at least, with genuine selection*

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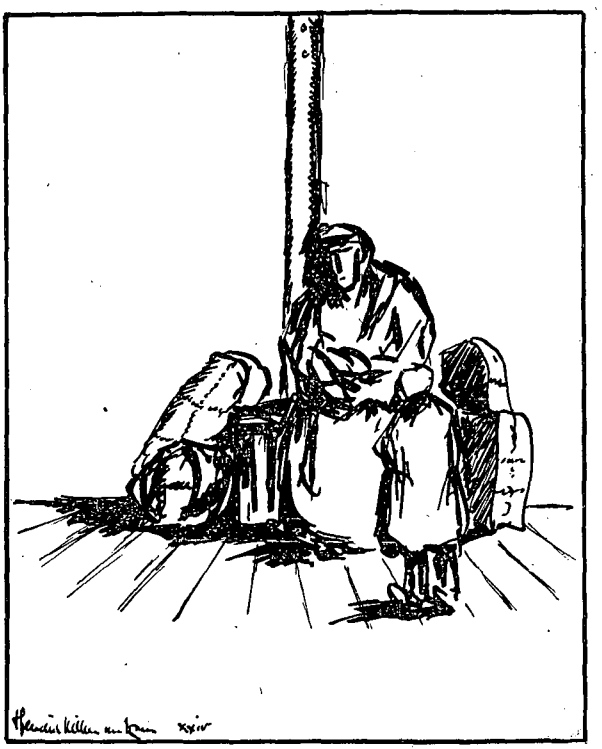
his other qualifications, and the fact is to be clearly stated on the certificate. But during its stated term it does assure him against being turned back at the port of entry because of a full quota.

"Make the quota continuous," the commissioner continued. "Let the consul issue in any one month only one-twelfth of the yearly total of certificates. Then, strictly speaking, the quota is never exhausted.

"I would have the certificate run for an ample period, say six months," Mr. Husband continued. "That would give the alien who intended to come here time to go home after getting his certificate and make his arrangements in an orderly and comfortable way. We hear a great deal about the family which sells its cow to come to America and then finds itself in distressing circumstances because it has broken up the old home and for one reason or another can't get the new one. Well, let's give them time to get a good price for the cow! It often happens, too, that a family will be held at the port of embarkation by sudden illness. Under the present law that may mean the loss of the opportunity to go to America for six months or a year. With a six-months' certificate in his pocket, a man could wait for his youngster to get well and still be safely within the quota."



The long-term certificates have been criticised on the ground that the holders of five or six months' accumulation of certificates might all decide to come in one jam. Mr. Husband is not much disturbed by that possibility: a travel certificate isn't the sort of thing one hoards. The plan should result in a fairly steady inflow at American ports.

"I don't know, however," Mr. Husband went on with a twinkle, "that I think it is necessary to prescribe everything down to the fly-specks on the applicant's file of papers before he can get a certificate. Here's what he has to show the consul, according to the Johnson bill:

> In the application the immigrant shall state (1) the immigrant's full and true name; age, sex, and race; the date and place of birth; places of residence for the five years immediately preceding his application; whether married or single, and the names and places of residence of wife or husband and minor children, if any; calling or occupation; personal description (including height, complexion, color of hair and eyes, and marks of identification); ability to speak, read and write; names and addresses of parents, and if neither parent living, then the name and address of his nearest relative in the country from which he comes; port of entry into the United States; final destination, if any, beyond the port of entry; whether he has a ticket through to such final destination; whether going to join a relative or friend, and, if so, what relative or friend and his name and complete address; the purpose for which he is going to the United States, the length of time he intends to remain in the United States; whether or not he intends to abide in the United States permanently; whether ever in prison or almshouse; whether he or either of his parents has ever been in an institution or hospital for the care and treatment of the insane; (2) if he claims to be a non-quota immigrant, the facts on which he bases such claim; and (3) such additional information as the Secretary may prescribe as necessary to the proper enforcement of the immigration laws and the naturalization laws.
>
> The immigrant shall furnish to the consular officer, with his application, copies of his "dossier" and prison record and military record, if any, a certified copy of his birth certificate if required by the country of his birth, and copies of all available public records concerning him kept by the government to which he owes allegiance. The documents so furnished shall be permanently attached to the application and become a part thereof.

"Why should a man lug around a cord of papers—from a birth certificate to the undertaker's receipt? If the consul attempts to give serious consideration to this sort of evidence the scheme will break down of its own weight. If not, why should we ask for it at all?

"It is clear what will happen. If you ask an alien for a full set of such papers, a thriving trade in documents will at once spring up. There are certain cases now, in which we make the applicant for an American visa produce an affidavit from a citizen who guarantees the support of the newcomer. I am told that a man was found in Warsaw with a pile of blank affidavits so high"—the commissioner held his hand a couple of feet from the floor—"all apparently signed by a notary in New York (we found afterwards that there wasn't any such person) and all ready to be filled in for anybody with the price. It would be impossible for a consulate to set up enough machinery to check all those papers. There are just two essentials: that the consuls avoid issuing certificates to applicants who are obviously inadmissible, and that the count be accurate. The responsibility for deciding whether an alien is or is not admissible must rest with the immigration staff here."

It seems fair, by the way, to regard this consular certificate plan as experimental. Its success will depend on the efficiency of the individual consul and his staff. It is the deserving alien who will suffer if the consul is careless: a certificate once granted is that much of the quota gone; if its holder is turned back at Ellis Island some admissible alien pays the price in disappointment and delay.

The commissioner's third point was that some changes should be made in the assignment of aliens to a particular quota. There are, he said, a number of highly desirable people of British stock who want to come to the United States from Australia or New Zealand or other colonial and dominion jurisdictions. Often such people wish to settle in California or elsewhere, perhaps the better to educate their children. The quotas are so small that difficulty arises at once. Mr. Husband would make room for such applicants in the British quota, where more elasticity would benefit the United States as well as the newcomers.

"And, of course, we would put a stop to the occasional sensational cases—they really are very infrequent—in which

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technically we must keep a baby out and let its parents in. We should let a minor child, wherever born, take the nationality of its admissible parent."

"If you are talking of necessary immediate changes," he said, "I think I should stop here." But he went on to talk of preferential allotment of consular certificates.

The Johnson bill would admit the immediate relatives of naturalized citizens without regard to quota. Senator Reed's plan is to make the minor children, wife or husband, or parents of a citizen preferred groups within the quota. Commissioner Husband would admit the wife and minor children, but is not so sure about the parents. "As soon as you start, on a large scale, reuniting families here," he points out, "you also start breaking up families on the other side. It is an endless chain. And if you set up a number of preferred groups on a basis of relationship you change the character of the quota: you get mostly women and children, instead of the men we need.

"The greatest hardship falls on those who came before the quota law was thought of, expecting to bring their kinsfolk later, and now find that almost impossible. I should make a temporary special allowance for them, until it was reasonably certain that such men were taken care of, and then bring such preferences to an end. If a man and his wife know what they are doing, they can meet the quota law together without hardship. With the continuous quota in operation, they can choose between taking the chances of a separation and waiting till both are sure of coming together.

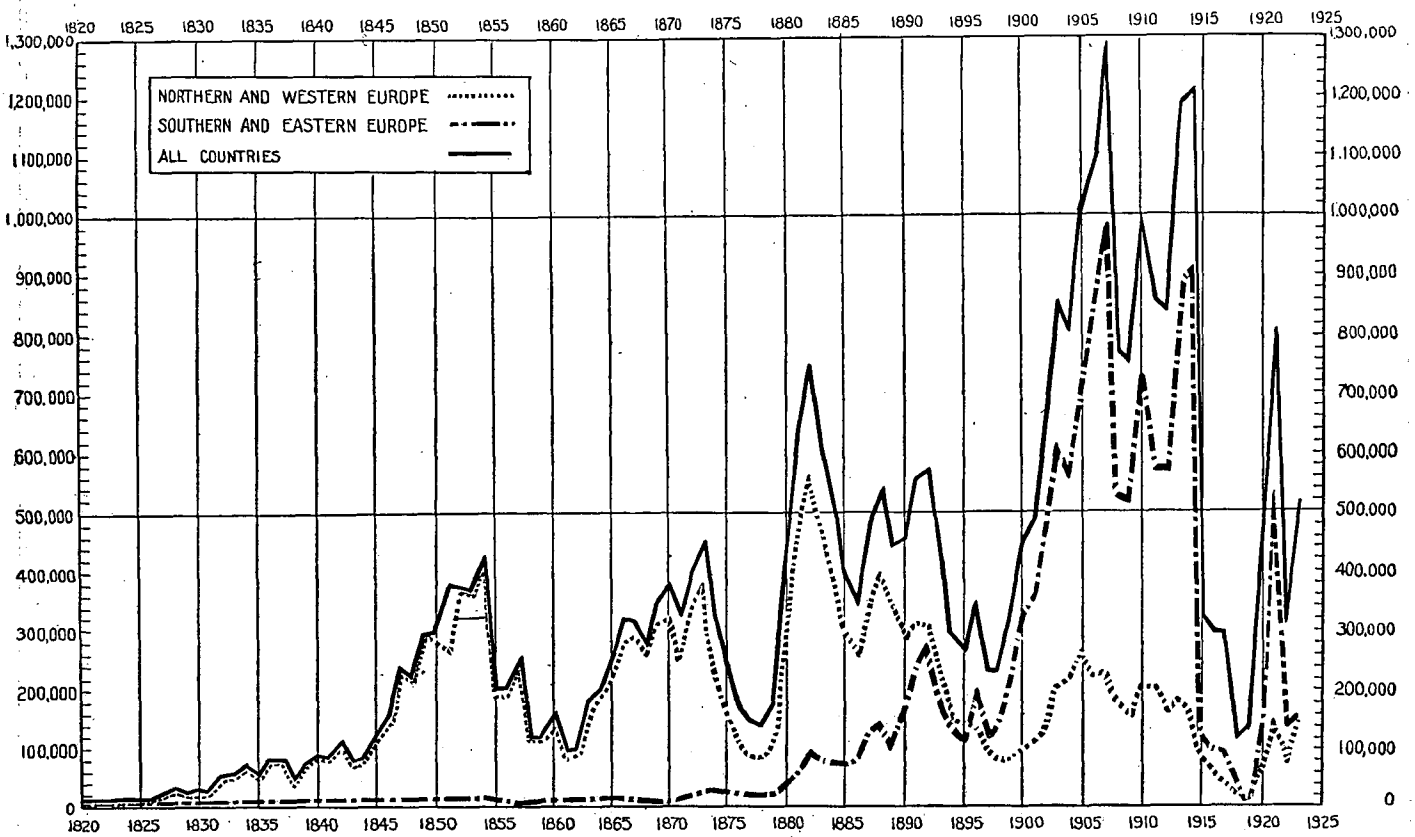
"But there is another more difficult problem. The young men who are needed as workers, and who come here unmarried, are going sooner or later to want wives from among their own people. The quota is hard on fiancées.

"Still, all these preferential arrangements are for the benefit of somebody in Europe. I should like to see the United States in a position to choose immigrants for its own benefit. I know, for instance, that Pennsylvania needs skilled dairy hands. There is good steady work for them. I know there are too many dairy hands in Switzerland. We ought to have enough leeway to bring together the Pennsylvania dairy-farms and the Swiss workers. There is a growing effort in the South to get farmers from the northwest European countries to settle on the farm-lands that the Negroes are leaving. With proper safeguards against real estate exploitation, it would be a good thing to facilitate that process. We already have some basis for the selective admission of agricultural workers in the accurate information at the command of the county agents.

"When we turn to industry the situation is more difficult. But we have already made a beginning. There has been increasing use of the existing law which permits us to abrogate the ban on contract labor when it can be proved that workers of a particular sort are needed for a particular piece of work and cannot be had in this country. In the last fiscal year 51 applications for such exemptions were approved, and employers were allowed to bring in a total of 3,318 workers of the special kind needed—three men skilled in coloring bronze, for instance. In the relatively small quotas there would be too little give and take for selection of this sort, but in the larger ones I believe we could pick and choose to advantage—but we can do so only if we are not tied down by too many prescribed preferences.

"If we had that privilege, we would really be justified in talking about 'selective' immigration."

G. S.



In this chart from the annual report of the Secretary of Labor for the last fiscal year, the upper line represents total immigration. The lower lines show its two main components—from northern-western and southern-eastern Europe. The relative size and influence of these two streams is the burden of most current discussion of immigration policy. Since 1896 the southern-eastern groups have come in larger numbers; the Johnson bill, by returning to the census of 1890 as the quota basis, proposes to reverse the tendency of the past two decades

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The Neighbors Discuss the Immigration Bill

A page of comment on Congressman Johnson's proposal from the foreign language press in the United States, clipped and translated by the Foreign Language Information Service

The Cold Anglo-Saxon

THE doors to the United States are being closed by degrees. . . . The cold Anglo-Saxon race shows this egotism. Europeans who have cultivated this country did not suppose, even in their dreams, that their descendants would be barred by law; that admission would be denied them to this soil which they sought and dedicated with their sweat and blood.—Hrvatski Listi (Croatian), New York.

Not the Way to Friendship

The author of the bill, as well as those Congressmen whom he represents, have made the statement that it is their desire to have larger numbers of immigrants coming to America from countries possessing a "high culture." Poland has been listed by them with countries possessing a "low culture." . . . Such a classification is also harmful to the United States, for it represents an official classification of nations into "better" and "worse" categories. This may have very far-reaching results as concerns the relations between the various races living in this country which up to the present time were quite harmonious.—Nowy Swiat (Polish), New York.

Small Town Stuff

From his own words we gather that Chairman Johnson was not aware of any immigration peril until he went to settle in Hoquiam, a brand-new but small town in the Far West, where he bought a newspaper. There he found himself in a place astir with a rough variety of pioneers, where customs and institutions savor of the adventurous character of fortune-seeking settlers. Speaking of Hoquiam, Mr. Johnson says: "I live in a region which more than any other place in the United States is infested by Industrial Workers of the World!" That means he lives in an exceptional place under exceptional circumstances. And his fierce quarrels with the I. W. W. in Hoquiam have engendered in him a personal hatred of so-called aliens, although the I. W. W. are not composed of aliens. It is not, then, America that requires the Johnson Bill; it is Albert Johnson's individual situation at Hoquiam. . . . The political wrangles and struggles of an unknown and remote little town, still in its pioneer stage, must influence the destinies of hundreds of cities with their millions of inhabitants. Hoquiam shapes the country's future. Hoquiam rules!—Il Corriere d'America (Italian), New York.

Fighting Back

Johnson's Bill, which is aimed clearly and mercilessly at the Slav, the Latin and the Jew, but which attempted to slip by under the harmless guise of a change in the date of the census, has attracted the attention it merited. And Republicans, who backed the bill, are uneasy. . . . Unfortunately for their calculations, the Jew, the Pole, the Italian saw through the game quickly enough. In 1890 there were millions of Germans and English here; the Jews, Poles and Italians had not arrived in large numbers. 1890 meant the exclusion of the Jew and the Catholic. Or perhaps the friends of the Johnson Bill thought the insulted nationalities would not have the courage to protest, would be only too glad that they got in, and would let it go at that. Both calculations were foolish. The insulted nationalities understood—and they protested in a fashion which put the fear of the electorate in the heart of the party. It is a great pity that the threat of the party vote should have to be brought to the rescue of a principle which has nothing to do with party—the first principle of Americanism. But if the threat has to be made, let it be made clearly and unequivocally.—The Day (Jewish), New York.

Good Enough Once

If we were good enough for the American army and industry during the war, if our money was good enough to buy Liberty Bonds with, and if we were told that America is a just mother to all the races alike that helped her in her emergency, then we must recall this to those who seek now to impose a status of undesirable inferiority upon certain racial groups which in another emergency might (however deplorably) respond differently to the old appeal.—Svijet (Croatian), New York.

Three Egoisms

The restrictive immigration measures are caused by three egoisms:—the egoism of organized labor which fears European workers will cause lower wages; the egoism of race caused by those persons who seriously believe that the Anglo-Saxon is a superior race; the egoism of religion which is caused by Protestant bigots who fear the influence of Catholics, Jews and others.—L'Unione (Italian), San Francisco.

A Sop to Cerberus

The proposed further restriction of immigration is a bone that the Republican administration is throwing to the Ku Klux Klan and to the American Legion. They cannot give the bonus. But something must be done. As the physicians in the Middle Ages used to say: If you cannot diagnose the sickness, write out a prescription that has a neutral action. Restriction of immigration is such a remedy. It is to be hoped at least that the restrictionists will favor relatives of those who are here already. Even from the point of view of a 100 per cent Americanism, it would not be wise to close the doors to relatives of those who were the builders of this country.—Russky Golos (Russian), New York.

"Good" and "Bad" Peoples

The new project makes an attempt to divide the coming immigrants into two different classes: the desirable and the undesirable immigrants. Those who come from England, Norway, Sweden, Finland and Germany, are welcomed guests; those, however, who were born in the eastern and southern part of Europe, should better remain at home. We heard the echo of the spirit when 800 English immigrants were allowed to enter this country above the quota, some thousands of Russians and Jewish immigrants being, however, deported back to Europe at the same time. We must all combat the principle. There ought not to be good and bad nations, good and bad peoples. They must all be equal before the law.—The Forward (Jewish), New York.

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Underpinning the Platforms

By Samuel McCune Lindsay

THERE are no longer any really large, well-organized enterprises, whether engaged in manufacture or merchandising, that do not rely upon a research laboratory or a research staff to enable executive officers and directors to decide upon or determine policies wisely. Management has become more of a science as it has become more dependent on research.

In government everywhere on its administrative and executive side, a research or staff agency to collate and interpret all the facts and formulate the alternatives open to executive officers in the enforcement of the law and the exercise of such discretion as the law may give them, has come to be a necessity.

What bureaus of municipal research did a decade ago for the complex problems of municipalities, large and small, similar agencies of many kinds and now usually of official making, are doing for state and national governments as well. The Budget Bureau in Washington attached to the office of the President of the United States is such a staff research agency as presidents never had before President Harding organized the first one under the vigorous and dramatic leadership of General Dawes. Many governors and heads of subordinate divisions of national or state governments have similar aids and find them indispensable. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the administrative tasks alone of the American presidency were fast becoming an impossible job for any one man to compass and only the Budget Committee gives hope of bringing them into manageable proportions without radical constitutional changes.

Even the legislative branch of government, state and national, has developed for its more important committees engaged in the preparation of legislation a research staff agency in the form of technically qualified legislative draftsmen and drafting bureaus in addition to special commissions of inquiry. Congress and the state legislatures have the sole responsibility for decisions in matters of policy. They are the policy-making arm of the service. They perform this function in the exercise of legislative powers, which they cannot delegate and cannot use in a way to meet the just expectations of the people without that detached study of problems and of constructive solutions by those who have no responsibility for anything save the collection and analysis of facts and the application to those facts of the best available legal, economic and social knowledge.

In the judicial branch of government the need for a research or staff agency of inquiry has often been felt. Reference of certain classes of cases to a master and similar practices have served to meet this need only partially. Judges and lawyers have seriously put forth more definite proposals but as yet little change has taken place in court methods.

If research has demonstrated that it is a valuable if not well-nigh indispensable tool for efficiency in management, administration and performance of policy-forming functions on the part of the leadership in business and in judicial, executive and legislative office, what shall be said concerning its serviceableness to political leadership? The development of research methods in government and politics has been slow compared with the rapid demand for them in business, where the results are more easily measured. Yet even political and party organizations are not without some experience in the application and use of research methods. British political parties have had for many years permanent bureaus of research and inquiry into conditions, and the socialist party in this country has in many of its state and local organizations had similar service for its elected officials. This has been a very different thing from the ordinary publicity bureau of party organizations usually known chiefly for its partisan, unscientific and unreliable pronouncements which assume the character of political propaganda and are of no real aid to the leaders in the formulation of policies.

In this presidential campaign year and on the eve of the assembling of the national political party conventions, there is a more practical aspect to the role that research may play and indeed has played to a limited degree. A national party platform may be what most such instruments have been, with rare exceptions, in the past, merely a collection of fine phrases, vague promises, hopes and aspirations, loosely put together and issued as a feeler for the politician with his ear to the ground or the candidate, to ascertain what the public demands in constructive solutions of acute problems or in programs of work which governments are expected to perform. Such platforms are said to be meant to get into office on but not to ride on. They are usually forgotten by the successful party as soon as it takes office and very little attempt is made at the next election to render an account in terms of performance measured by such platforms. Theodore Roosevelt, in the year preceding the formation of the National Progressive party of 1912, after his remarkable experience in public life and with party organization methods, sounded a new note which was destined to change fundamentally the character of political platforms. Roosevelt called into conference political leaders, social workers, economists, sociologists and scholars in many fields to consider the political problems of the day, the actual economic and social conditions affecting the life of the people, and to bring to bear upon them the scientific knowledge of the time. It was out of such conferences that the Progressive party platforms of 1912, both national and state, were forged, and the dominant and underlying principle of those platforms was that of a covenant with the people. The idea of a party platform becoming a covenant embodying the decisions of responsible persons as to policies chosen on a fact basis, in comparison with which performance could be measured, has opened up new possibilities in political life. Woodrow Wilson was not slow to perceive the advantage and utility of this new principle, which affected the national political campaigns of all parties in 1916 and 1920. Mr. Wilson went farther and made it the basic

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factor in the covenant of the League of Nations. Mr. Harding in the campaign of 1920 referred again and again to the platform of the republican party as a covenant.

The National Republican Committee, in preparing for the campaign of 1920, appointed an Advisory Committee on Policies and Platform, through action taken six months before the assembling of the national Republican convention in Chicago. In December 1919 the Republican National Committee authorized its chairman to appoint an Advisory Commitee on Policies and Platform to consist of twelve members of the National Committee designated in the resolution and a substantial number of other Republicans not members of the National Committee, to be appointed by the chairman. This committee was authorized to investigate the existing needs and conditions affecting specific problems that would have to be considered by the national convention, to gather facts and data, to invite a full expression of opinions of leading Republicans, and to submit its recommendations and the materials it collected in convenient form to the Resolutions Committee of the national convention. Such a committee finally consisting of 170 men and women, representing the various sections of the country and the more positive differences of political opinion within the party and including a score or more congressmen and others in important public office, was effectively organized and divided into nineteen subcommittees, each dealing with a particular topic, upon which a special report was made and considered by the whole committee called in conference with other party leaders in Washington one month before the national convention met.

The function of this advisory committee was not to draft a platform nor to make the decisions with respect to policy which it was the duty of the Resolutions Committee of the convention to make and of the convention itself to ratify or amend. Through the organization of an expert staff of specialists on the various topics considered by the subcommittees, it was found possible in about three months active work to furnish a body of material and recommendation which greatly facilitated the drafting of a platform and enabled the Committee on Resolutions at the convention not only to consider the definite suggestions and recommendations of the Advisory Committee and its subcommittees, but also to pass upon the suggestions and recommendations made by delegates to the convention with an accuracy of judgment and with an ease and expedition that had never been known before. In addition to the reports prepared by specialists for the subcommittees, the central staff formulated and sent out about 100,000 copies of questionnaires, dealing with one or another of the topics studied by the subcommittees, which are as follows:

1. Agricultural policies.
2. Civil service and retirement.
3. Conservation and waterways.
4. Currency and banking.
5. Federal and state control.
6. High cost of living.
7. Immigration.
8. Industrial relations.
9. Industry and commerce.
10. Insular possessions.
11. International trade and credits.
12. Law and order.
13. Merchant marine.
14. National economy and expenditure.
15. Postal service.
16. Railroads.
17. Social problems (including child labor, women in industry, maternity protection, federal employment agencies, social insurance, housing, progress of the Negro race, etc.).
18. Federal taxation.
19. War risk insurance.

These questionnaires were sent to selected lists of men and women interested in the respective topics. Thy brought a gratifying response and much valuable data thus gathered was classified and laid in memorandum form before the subcommittees. The final reports of the subcommittees were published by the National Republican Committee and made a volume of 272 pages. The practical uses of this volume were not confined to the convention or to the making of the platform. It played a most important part throughout the campaign and has made a valuable handbook for those elected to public office on this platform and as a means of interpreting the platform from week to week during the past four years.

The National Republican convention in Chicago was so impressed with the value of this new service and the Commitee on Resolutions was so appreciative of the assistance that had been rendered it that on its recommendation the convention itself adopted at its closing session the following resolution:

> Resolved, that the National Committee is hereby authorized and directed, through such agencies as it may deem proper, to collect, digest and report to the Committee on Resolutions of the next ensuing Convention, such data regarding Republican achievements and suggestions with respect to policies and platform as may enable the Committee on Resolutions to perform its duties more speedily and efficiently.
>
> *Unanimously agreed to.*
>
> *Chicago, June* 12, 1920.

The national Democratic party during the campaign of 1920, but after the assembling of its national convention and the adoption of its platform, organized a somewhat similar research and staff agency in the preparation of its campaign textbook and its campaign materials, and an effort was made to continue this as an aid to its political leaders and to Democratic members of Congress in the years subsequent to the campaign of 1920. This effort, however, was discontinued, I believe, on account of inability to secure financial support from the members of the party organization.

The Republican party has done nothing officially to continue the work so auspiciously begun by its Advisory Committee on Policies and Platform in 1920, during the interval since the campaign of that year. It is hardly likely that an effort which demonstrated so clearly its usefulness to the party and one that is capable of still further practical expansion will be allowed to lapse. The Republican National Committee, acting on the terms of the resolution of its own convention, will, of course, take some action along similar lines in preparation for the forthcoming convention in Cleveland. As to what that action will be there has been no public announcement yet made. It will undoubtedly be found that there is a loss in effectiveness and in the cost of such research and staff preparation for the convention due to the fact that such work has not been carried on continuously from year to year.

The New York County Committee of the Republican party has, within a few months, set up a permanent political research bureau to deal with municipal and state affairs and it seems probable that this research and staff agency will be made state-wide, permanent and effective, and will be ultimately brought under the direction and constituted to serve the needs of the state republican committee. It is only a question of time until similar efforts are an essential part of the organization of every political party.

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Ghosts *v.* Children

By Geddes Smith

HIGH WALLS and windows frame the room. Heavy hangings of imperial red form an august background for the members of the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives. They sit behind a long arc of mahogany. Overhead a monumental chandelier adds a formal beam or two to the struggling February sunlight. The room is solid, spacious, dignified, eminently sound, eminently republican.

The light is undimmed. The hangings make never a rustle. Yet wraiths and portents flit to and fro, and even in this bulwarked shrine of American liberties there is a faint sound of chattering teeth.

The opponents of a child labor amendment to the constitution of the United States are being heard.

The first witness is the spokesman for the Moderation League. His silk-bound cutaway, his serene spread of mustache, suggest a certain environing security. But he is worried. We have prospered and have been happy under the constitution which the fathers gave us. This amendment is no mere change in that instrument: it is the beginning of a new constitution. Is it safe? Is our Experience with the Eighteenth Amendment (this bogey came to stay) so satisfactory that we wish to experiment further in the coercion of states? If we dragoon the body when we need to convince the soul we shall lead to revolt. Nicholas Murray Butler says so. Mr. Coolidge, also, is invoked. If Congress invades the field of state responsibility at this point where will it stop? Will the states be deprived of their right to control the most intimate relationships—that of marriage, for instance? (Who would have looked for the Uniform Divorce bogey here?) "Do not experiment further in a field unhappily occupied by the Eighteenth Amendment. I beg of you, gentlemen of the committee, come to the rescue of the constitution."

It seemed pertinent to Mr. Michener of Michigan, a member of the committee, to inquire what the purpose of the Moderation League might be.

Well, it was rather complicated. The witness could explain more accurately in writing. Pressed for an answer, he declared that its primary purpose had been to discover how far depriving the working man of his beer was driving him to a whisky diet!

Then Mr. Foster of Ohio spoke up, the leader of the friends of the amendment in the House, penetrating, aggressive: "You have quoted from a speech of President Coolidge when he was vice-president. Are you aware that the president has communicated to Congress his deliberate endorsement of this amendment?"

"I can't account for what the President says," the witness parries. The President may, of course, have changed his mind.

"Do you think it is fair to quote the President in the way you have done?"

The witness, his geniality unscotched, retires backward toward his waiting chair. "I don't want to criticise the President of the United States," he insists, blandly. "I won't do it." He subsides.

THE next witness is a Philadelphia lawyer, appearing, so he says, in his personal capacity. He opens vigorously with a clear-cut statement: "The question is whether this is a subject better left to local governments." He believes that, like the Liquor Traffic, it is.

Mr. Sumners of Texas makes a valiant effort to wave this persistent wraith aside: the comparison with the Eighteenth Amendment does not seem to him altogether pertinent. But the bogey retires only as far as the witness chairs, ready to spring into action again. When the gentleman from Philadelphia calls upon the Fathers, another daring committeeman outfaces these venerable spirits: "Why was the original concept of the Fathers the better concept? Couldn't they have made mistakes?" And another: "Isn't the physical and moral welfare of youth a matter of national importance today?"

The witness agrees, but the danger of child labor, he feels, may be exaggerated. "I began to work before I was thirteen and it never stunted my body."

Mild sensation in the committee-room. This is the first child laborer to make his appearance. Heretofore we have been considering such abstractions as liberty, the constitution, the state. Here is an exhibit in the flesh. The man is obviously sturdy. Child labor did not stunt his body. "How about his mind?" whispers a woman who is fighting for the amendment.

Apparently even his own splendid youth has not committed the witness against *all* child labor legislation. But he would permit the movement to proceed naturally till local people are converted to the cause and to local enforcement. He is shocked by the thought of sending federal sleuths and inspectors into the backward states. Shall sovereign states—again a ghostly rustle—sink to the level of the French departments?

He wavers on the main issue. "Isn't it natural that business men should ask that a halt be called in this sort of legislation? They are carrying a heavy burden of regulation now. A business man is assumed to be a patriotic gentleman who is serving the public interest."

While hearers jot down the definition for future reference, a member of the committee voices his curiosity about this well-spoken lawyer who believes so earnestly in local police power and has such brotherly respect for the business man—but who appears in a personal capacity. Questions develop the fact that he had an errand in Washington anyway. And a representative of the Pennsylvania Manufacturers' Association asked him to appear. And there was also a suggestion from the president of the Sentinels of

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the Republic—self-appointed defenders of our liberties. The chairman of the committee, Mr. Graham of Philadelphia, unfriendly to the amendment, seeks to rearrange the veil of casual interest around the witness' shoulders.

"You came to Washington on other business, did you not, and then your friend of the Pennsylvania Manufacturers' Association suggested that you appear?"

"That is correct, sir, except that the suggestion was made before I came." The veil refused to stay put.

The witness is disturbed by the tendency to Centralization in the Federal Government—a formidable wraith, this. The whole structure is so complex now that it may tend to break down some day.

"There are many, many amendments pending in this body," remarked a committeeman from Virginia—ex-Governor Montague. The delegate from the Moderation League titters appreciatively.

The witness feels that the mothers of America are really against the amendment: they love their local liberties. He is pressed for his authority. It appears that Mrs. Philadelphia Lawyer and her friends are the mothers to whom he has reference.

"Are you aware that 17 national women's organizations have gone definitely on record as favoring this amendment?" asks Mr. Foster. "Doesn't that carry some weight?"

Murmur of 'No, no!" from the Moderation Leaguer. Mr. Foster pursues the subject. "Can you get that sentiment of the mothers who are opposed to the amendment before this committee in some collective way?" The witness nods vaguely, and presently sits down. He has made a good argument for local as against national control—but behind his theories the self-effacing Pennsylvania Manufacturers' Association—no ghost this time—is too plainly visible.

A LAWYER from Baltimore appears at the request of the Women's Constitutional League. Most of its members, he acknowledges, opposed the Nineteenth Amendment. But he has a personal story to tell. He was one of 11 children raised in the country. Was his father a criminal because he made the boy help plant potatoes?

"I object," he says, "to any authority outside Maryland laying down the police law for our citizens." He has some doubt, moreover, whether it isn't better to leave the whole matter of child welfare, child labor, and child education to fathers and mothers. And then the most pitiful, worn-out specter of all creeps into view: "I don't find many mothers among the workers of the Children's Bureau."

A lady with gray curls and an expansive smile also represents the Constitutional League of Maryland. Baltimore seems to ship defenders of the constitution to Washington as abundantly as during the early days of prohibition she shipped bootleg liquor. The lady, with a grave cadence, reads a statement expressing the devotion of the Constitutional League to a sovereign nation formed of many states.

The Constitutional League of Maryland, it appears, has between forty and fifty active members.

"We are mothering our children"—with a languishing glance at the middle-aged committeeman at the end of the row. "We haven't much time for public activities."

Further questioning reveals the fact that the league came into existence to oppose centralization of government, more specifically, "to fight the maternity bill as the first step in centralization." The Sheppard-Towner spook flutters feebly.

Next a Pennsylvania manufacturer, who dubs himself an "amateur political and social economist." He has a hard-headed conviction: that present education doesn't educate. His deduction is that until education fits a child for life it is premature to force the child to attend school when he might be educationally—and gainfully—employed. There are two reasons, he has observed, why children go to work. One is that they want money to gratify their adolescent cravings. The other is that, ill-suited to schooling of conventional sort, they develop an inferiority complex and want to quit. Not often because they have to work for economic reasons. He begins to develop his own theory of education. The committee member from Maine interrupts: "These theories of yours are spoiled by the facts."

A refreshing interpolation. So many, many theories as to the right handling of youth—from manufacturing states, so many admonitory shades from light-wine-and-beer strongholds, in the course of one hearing! If a mill-child had wandered in. . . .

THE last witness of the day was David Clark, editor of the Southern Textile Bulletin, arch-enemy of federal child labor legislation. He begged for time. He wanted to produce witnesses from several southern states who could testify to the fact that such an amendment was not necessary. He had not known of the hearings until a few days before. Mr. Foster pointed out that hearings had been announced early in January; that Mr. Clark, no stranger to committee-rooms, must have known where to secure information. No, Mr. Clark had had no knowledge of the hearings. Misrepresentations had been made by the Children's Bureau. He wanted an opportunity to correct them.

A paper was passed up to Mr. Foster. It was a clipping from Mr. Clark's paper of January 31, 1924.

The present Congress will pass the resolution to submit to the states a constitutional amendment nominally permitting

Child Labor Trends, 1920-24

In estimating the present extent of the employment of children in the textile industry it should be borne in mind that the Federal census of 1920 was taken at the beginning of a period of industrial depression, and also at a time of year—early in January—when employment is usually at its lowest ebb. Moreover, in 1920 the employment of children was discouraged by a Federal child-labor law.

Evidence of the general increase in child labor since the taking of the 1920 census is given by the statistics of employment certificates issued for legal employment received currently by the Children's Bureau. These statistics show that the increase in child labor which occurred during the war years in practically every important industrial and commercial city in the United States and which reached its peak in 1918 began to decline in 1920. With better times in 1922, the number of children taking out their first work permits began to mount. Of 35 cities for which statistics were obtained, 21 reported increases in 1922 as compared with 1921. The increases reported for 1922 were more marked for the second half of the year than for the first and even greater increases were reported in the first year of 1923 as compared with the first half of the previous year.

—*U. S. Children's Bureau.*

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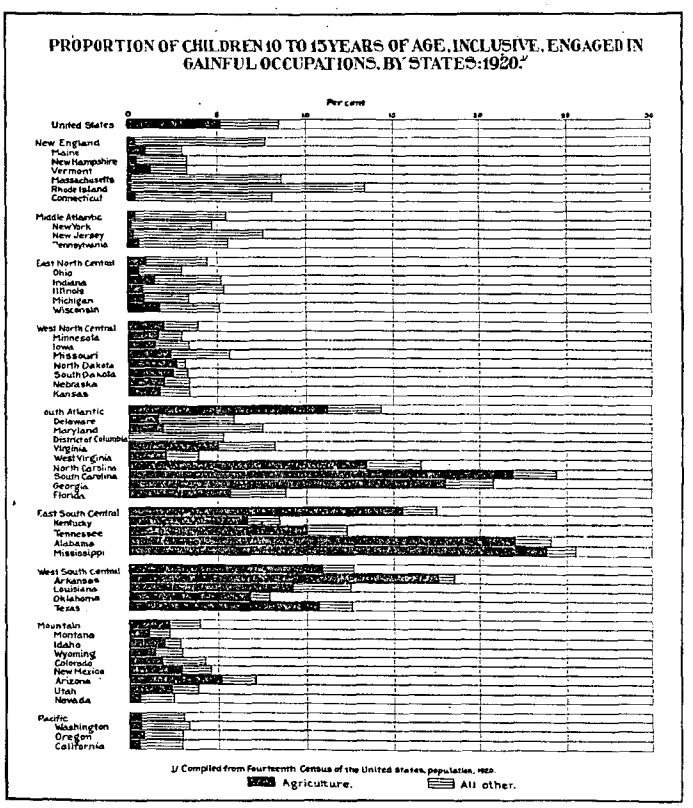

Congress to pass a federal child labor law but actually placing Congress in immediate and direct control of the industries of this country. . . . We spent some time in Washington this week and are confident that the constitutional amendment resolution will be passed; in fact, we expect it to be favorably reported by the Senate Judiciary Committee. . . . The passage of the resolution is practically assured and there is little doubt that it will be passed by the necessary 38 states.

This was odd; that the scout of the textile operators should have been in Washington in January and should have heard nothing of these hearings. Mr. Foster leaped at this breach in the witness' defenses, but the chairman demurred. The paper was unread, and the plea for more delay was granted.

A SECOND day's hearing. More Marylanders. A Baltimore physician, with a luxurious chin settling into his ample collar, prescribed for the enfeebled sovereign state of Maryland: the patient must have full control over her own affairs. Then he too became personal.

"As I stand here, 64 years old, in reasonably good health, I believe it is because I did labor—hard labor—before I was 18." It developed that he worked during the summer on a farm. Not only that, but he had asked people—women, indeed—whose judgment he respected, whether child labor had ever hurt *them*. No less than two women, one an ex-school teacher, were sure it had not.

"Far better for children to be fatigued when they finish work and so go to bed instead of going out to waste their time at dances and the like," was his professional verdict.

Mr. Michener was unimpressed by the fragmentary opinions of the Baltimore physician's friends. "Have you ever seen a child going to the mill before daylight, dinner-pail in hand, and coming out after dark?" he asked the witness. The Baltimore doctor had not.

Still another Baltimorean, another disinterested student of constitutional affairs. It did not appear whether he too was disinterested by invitation. His bogey was impaled on a question mark: "Where are you going to stop?" he shrilled at the committee. "This means the Beginning of the End."

HE spoke truly. It is the beginning of the end—of child exploitation in cotton mills and canneries, breakers and beetfields. These inconsequential scraps of evidence, this parade of apparitions, this convocation of bodiless fears, mark the closing chapters of a story which has spun its dreary length through more than a century, since Connecticut passed its first law in 1813 compelling the employers of child labor to make some provision for their education. Despite its chairman, the House Judiciary Committee cannot long be delayed in its decision to report favorably the amendment behind which all the friends of children have come together. Its action may be taken before these words are read. In the Senate committee Senator Shortridge has been pressing for an affirmative report. In both houses there are said to be votes enough to pass the amendment once it is on the floor.

Since the adverse decision of the Supreme Court on the second federal child labor law, in May, 1922, the movement has been handicapped by divided counsels. It has been a slow process to frame an amendment in language satisfactory to all the groups which supported its purpose. The Permanent Conference for the Abolition of Child Labor, headed by Mr. Gompers, the Children's Bureau, the National Child Labor Committee, and good friends of the amendment in the Senate—notably Senators Shortridge, Pepper and Walsh—eventually agreed on this form:

Section 1. The Congress shall have power to limit, regulate and prohibit the labor of persons under the age of eighteen years and to prescribe the conditions of such labor.

Section 2. The power of the several states is unimpaired by this article except that the operation of state laws shall be suspended to the extent necessary to give effect to legislation enacted by the Congress.

It was, of course, the second section that created the difficulty. It seemed essential to some leaders in the movement that the *power* of the states should be preserved beyond the shadow of doubt, even if specific federal legislation must be given precedence. It is believed that the wording amply protects the states whose legislative standards may be superior to those which Congress sees fit to adopt. At the same time, it will enable Congress to bring backward regions up to a level which public opinion generally will support as a national standard.

If the amendment is adopted and Congress thereupon enacts a law which reestablishes the standards of the act of 1919, the child labor regulations of no less than 30 states and the District of Columbia will be advanced in some particular. The 11-hour day for children in North Carolina, the 12-year-old poverty permits and 60-hour week in Georgia, the 10-hour day in Rhode Island and South Carolina, Louisiana, Michigan and New Hampshire, will be wiped out. Judging by the record during the life of two former federal laws, the educational effect of such a law on the states will be felt almost immediately in the adoption of local statutes and in strengthening the hands of state, school and labor authorities.

The amendment faces now two obstacles. One is the clutter in Congress. Oil and taxes have delayed other business. It is an election year: Congressmen want to go home and mend fences. Between the upper and nether millstones

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of unfinished business and summer campaigning a good many important bills are going to be squeezed out. The child labor amendment, however, has been too roundly endorsed by the administration and by the party in power to be in as much danger as some of its competitors for the attention of Congress. With the organized women of the country, the churches, and the labor unions behind it, it can hardly be ignored in an election year. But there is danger if action is too long deferred: continued effort is necessary to guarantee its passage.

The other obstacle is the possibility that opponents of the amendment will move obliquely to postpone its adoption until after action has been taken on the proposed Wadsworth amendment, which would alter the steps required in adopting any amendment to the constitution. This proposal reads as follows:

> The Congress, whenever two-thirds of each House shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by three-fourths of the several states through their legislatures or conventions, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress or the convention: *Provided,* That the members of at least one house in each of the legislatures which may ratify shall be elected after such amendments have been proposed; that any state may require that ratification by its legislature be subject to confirmation by popular vote; and that, until three-fourths of the States have ratified or more than one-fourth of the states have rejected or defeated a proposed amendment, any State may change its vote; *And provided further,* that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate

Whether or not this is sound, its significance in the child-labor situation is that it would postpone action, perhaps for four or five years. Some of the opponents of the child-labor amendment cling to it as a drowning man clutches at straws. When they fall back on such tactics, and when they recruit for the opposition so sorry a company of brother-prejudices and sister-fears as trailed their shadowy garments through the committee-room in Washington, it is time for friends of the children to take heart, bend their backs once again to the door, and let the fresh air and sunlight of a new day in upon toiling, ghost-ridden children.

Mapping the Public Service

WHEN, in the federal service, all the duties of positions and the qualifications of their incumbents are ascertained and recorded, and an adequate statement thereof prepared and published, then we have made and hung up for all to a see a map of the Civil Service of our country as clear and indisputable as though it were a map of our great geographic expanse made by the Geological Survey—no mysteries, no secret roads, no concealments. He who runs may read and find his own place or his neighbors.

The sheer statement of this new power stirs profoundly any one who knows the government service. It must at once silence the silly insistence by incompetents because the job for which an incumbent is needed is to be so clearly defined that a candidate who does not possess qualifications cannot be forced upon an appointing officer without violating the law, any more than you can be forced to accept a ticket for Pittsburgh when you want to go to Chicago.

This was to have been the effect of the Sterling-Lehlbach Bill, offered in the last Congress with the cordial support of friends of the civil service, and eventually—after a series of compromises—passed.

Yet when I inquire as to the triumphs of the new law, I find that it is not yet genuinely in operation because not yet has this concise analysis of jobs, this foundation map-work been prepared and published. And when I search the pages of the act to determine why, I think I see one reason in a curiously archaic provision.

Naturally one would take for granted that this measure is to be enforced by the federal Civil Service Commission whose forty years of useful and honorable existence have given it and it alone the invaluable records and the invaluable continuous experience of this long period. At the present time, in highest degree, the personnel of the Service commands public respect and confidence. Yet what do we find? Three bureaus of diverse duties joined in the administration of this work: the Budget Bureau, which correlates yearly estimates of government expenditures, a great work; the Bureau of Efficiency, a research bureau; and the Civil Service Commission, the first two entirely apart from the business of examination and certifying which belongs to the Civil Service Commission. But the heads of these services are recognized as too busy to undertake any new and alien work. Hence the law says they can be represented by deputies.

Now grant the most cooperative fairness of all the heads and all the subordinate deputies, can you suggest or find in our government a less effective business organization? No wonder the enforcement halts before reaching the first milestone. And if disposition exists to discriminate unfairly or to ignore the essential provisions of the law, what protection for a disingenuous majority is afforded by this board on which six officials, subordinates and principals, can find shelter behind each other!

Of course, the determined effort of a competent majority could enforce even with the present organization; but a majority which did not work for direct full enforcement could ask no better cover than is now afforded.

The errors and discrimination in the present tentative classifications would inevitably disappear in the light of the publicity this act was drawn to afford. Scientific services long recognized, bureaus of social and economic research—such as the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau cannot be classified as clerical and administrative when their lawful functions are clearly described, nor reduced to a low salary scale because of an erroneous classification.

The truth is, the difficulty in securing a fine civil service worthy a democratic country is not altogether in Washington nor is its root in Congress. If we want to improve our service we must go home and create there a decent ideal of public administration. Washington only makes visible the public's state of mind on the subject—in the words of Morley—"democracy in the discussions of the day means Government working directly through Public Opinion."

It is our business to work for an informed and just public opinion that knows a good law when it reads it and will tolerate no tampering with its effective operation.

JULIA C. LATHROP

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The Common Welfare

THE outlook for immigration legislation, still vague enough in the troubled state of Congress, has been considerably clarified. It will be remembered that Albert Johnson, chairman of the House Committee on Immigration, was early in the field with a bill based on the conviction that the country wanted rigorous restriction and preferred that it should fall most heavily on immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. The bill therefore provided a 2 per cent quota based on the census of 1890, which would have cut down the total number of quota immigrants from over 350,000 to under 170,000, and would have reduced the Italian allotment, for instance, from 42,000 to about 4,000—less than one-tenth of the existing figure.

Some hint of the resentment aroused by this proposal can be found in the handful of editorials from the foreign-language press in this country, reprinted on p. 670. Such talk, in a presidential year, makes Washington uneasy; more so, perhaps, than the judicial protest of Secretary Hughes against another provision of the bill which would have barred all Japanese, scrapping the "gentleman's agreement" and good feeling in the Pacific to boot.

WHILE the Johnson bill held the center of the stage and drew fire from foreign-born groups, the Senate Committee moved slowly. Traditionally more sensitive than the House to foreign relations, the Senate had less stomach for this stirring up of national animosities. The bills before it varied from the equivalent of Mr. Johnson's to one creating a new body to be known as the Immigration Board and giving it wide discretionary powers in fixing, altering and suspending quotas. Senator Reed of Pennsylvania, a member of the committee, offered an ingenious plan with a basic quota of one per cent which would be increased to 5 (both on the census of 1910) for any group which, according to the 1920 census, was more than 50 per cent naturalized. On February 28, however, the Senate committee voted to embody in the bill which it would eventually report a 2 per cent quota on the census of 1910.

If the close vote in the committee reflects the feeling of the Senate as a whole, the present quota of 3 per cent and the new quota of 2 will run neck and neck. But the chances are that this compromise arrangement, which cuts a third from the total number of aliens to be admitted and still leaves the relative proportions of the racial groups unchanged, will commend itself to those in both houses who wish to satisfy the majority desire for restriction without unduly offending large and vociferous city constituencies.

The Senate committee favors placing the Japanese on a quota basis. It would give preference within the quota to the near relatives of naturalized citizens, instead of admitting them outside the quota as Mr. Johnson suggests. If a compromise can be reached on the basic quota plan, however, these matters are likely to be adjusted between the houses.

THERE is danger however that the basic compromise may not be reached, that House and Senate will again be deadlocked so long that at the last minute the present law, unchanged, will be extended another year. Fortunately all the bills prominently discussed thus far embody radical administrative changes which, good or bad in detail, will tend to relieve the grosser evils of the existing act. The consular certificates issued up to the limit of the quota before aliens leave their own countries; the partial weeding out of inadmissible applicants on the other side of the water; the distribution of quotas through the year; the adjustment of minor nationality tangles—in general the program which Commissioner Husband puts forward on p. 667—these features are pretty certain to find place in any new bill which Congress accepts. But in an eleventh-hour wrangle they may fall by the way.

There is room for wide difference of opinion as to the proper size and technical basis of immigration quotas. The Johnson bill is based on a unfortunate racial animosity, is supported by unsound evidence, and would tend to undo the most earnest efforts for Americanization and international friendship. But there can be no difference of opinion as to the necessity for administrative changes in the existing law, so that our immigration policy, whatever it may be, shall at least deal intelligently and humanely with the individual newcomer.

IT would seem logical that the personnel agency of the federal government—the Civil Service Commission—should have full jurisdiction over the delicate personnel problems involved in a through-going classification of the federal service, as Miss Lathrop points out on p. 676. To substitute this logical arrangement for the blundering compromise which resulted in setting up the Personnel Classification Board is the purpose of a bill introduced into the House by Mr. Lehlbach, of New Jersey, chairman of the Committee on the Civil Service. Hearings on this bill, just over as The Survey goes to press, have revealed in clear colors not only the ineptitude of the chairman of the board, representing the Bureau of the Budget, but the high-handed position of the representative of the Bureau of Efficiency. It is too late to undo, so far as the fiscal year 1924-25 is concerned, the shabby work of the existing board. But the idea of federal reclassification is too good to sacrifice,

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and if the task is now reassigned to the Civil Service Commission the friends of the original Sterling-Lehlbach bill—and of sound personnel administration throughout the government—will have firm ground to build on.

WHEN Mr. Kaplan talks of the democratic organization of social work and the general social practitioner (p. 681), he brings into the foreground a very pretty problem in professional training. Where can we find that all-round practitioner, able to see clearly and meet adequately—even with the aid of specialists—all of the situations which arise in any neighborhood?

Following the social agencies, the training schools departed some years ago from the generalized course for "social workers" and have been moving in the direction of specialized training for specialized practice—family case work, medical social work, psychiatric social work, community organization, and the like. Shall they now undertake to prepare a young person not only to be a practitioner of case work of all sorts but also a social engineer, a shepherd of a neighborhood flock and a teacher of individuals and of groups?

To do a good job, such neighborhood social workers will need almost as much knowledge and skill in all the specialized social work fields as the specialists themselves. They must identify the people who need the care of specialists, and must carry through the program which they prescribe. Even if they remain merely liaison officers and general friends of the family, while the specialists are at work, they must be informed and competent cooperators in the medical, psychiatric, economic, educational and sociological phases of a given case. Can they make the grade?

Perhaps we must regard the general practice of social work not as a preliminary to specialization but as its aftermath—a job to be undertaken only after years of experience in the practice of several specialties. It remains to be seen whether qualified workers will be willing to cut short their professional development as specialists and give their mature years to extensive rather than intensive development. The task demands a wide range of technique and a keen sense of human relationships. If the general neighborhood worker were to be of the specialized masculine gender, the outlook for success would probably be small. A more generalized she can perhaps get away with it.

AS usual, the creaking machinery of government lags behind the march of events. More than five years have passed since the signing of the armistice, yet the "gag" laws which crystallized out of the war hysteria of 1918-1919 still stand on the statute books of 34 states and four dependencies.

A survey made recently by the American Civil Liberties Union shows that 20 of those states and dependencies have made use of their laws. At present 114 men are serving terms under them in the prisons of seven states and more than 50 await trial in California and Idaho.

With the close of the war the Federal Espionage Act ceased to be invoked against those who opposed, in thought and speech, the policies of the government. But those same federal officials who had worked under the act continued to make or instigate arrests, and then handed over the rest of the job to the state authorities for prosecution under the state laws. Notable on this point are the activities of William J. Burns which resulted in the arrest of W. Z. Foster and 31 others in Michigan in August 1922. The case of Foster, charged with "assembling with" an illegal organization, the now defunct Communist Party, resulted in a hung jury; that of C. E. Ruthenberg, found guilty on the same charge, is being carried to the Michigan Supreme Court. Should the verdict be sustained, Foster will probably be retried and the accompanying cases pushed.

All but five of the 114 men now in jail and the fifty-odd waiting trial are members of the Industrial Workers of the World. In practically no case is there any charge or evidence of anything except such membership.

The movement which—right or wrong—had as its original aim and excuse the protection of the national government in time of national peril, has degenerated into a kind of petty persecution of local disturbers of the established order of thought. From the point of view of the convict, however, imprisonment even for one year is far from petty—and a considerable number of these men are sentenced to twenty years. In justice to them, as well as to our own intellectual honesty and emotional stability, must we not have an effective searching of these anachronistic state laws—left on the statute books by a receding wave of hysteria?

DO you believe in aero-therapy? Or auto-thermy? Or biodynamic-chromatic therapy, geo-therapy, irido-therapy, zonet-therapy, and the work of the chromopaths, the leonic healers, the naprapaths, the sani-practors and the vitopaths? These and forty-eight other cults of healing are included in a kind of index expurgatorius recently issued by the New York City Department of Health. There have been angry protests from some who felt that they were undoubted sheep unjustly herded with the goats, or that their innocuous, usually drugless, practice, put them beyond board of health classifications of any kind. The board points out, however, that the failings which an ordinary M.D. diagnoses as a contagious disease sometimes appear among those who would not admit the diagnosis, and unreported and unquarantined, spread to those of us who lack the fortifications of the patient's philosophy. To the perplexed popular mind one moral at least is clear—there must be some central, authoritative control to take cognizance of the qualifications of those who would market their power to heal mental or physical ills, and all practising healers should have some tag—be it M.D. or another label—to denote clearly their special field and their equipment.

New York is trying at present to strengthen its medical practice act by a proposed piece of legislation, which has

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both opponents and supporters among the medical profession, to require the periodic registration of all qualified practitioners within the state. Such an official list would make possible an immediate check on unqualified pretenders. Possibly the inter-state situation—which at present makes it possible for self-styled physicians to get past a lax or corrupt state board and then, by reciprocity, obtain the right to practice in a more rigidly regulated state, may be solved by recourse to some central standard such as the National Board of Medical Examiners, whose certificated M.D. is accepted as valid by the Army, Navy, Public Service, and the Medical Examining Boards of twenty-eight states.

GOVERNOR FRIEND W. RICHARDSON of California has again been heard from. His economy budget, and its effect, were discussed in The Survey last year (April 15, and June 15). One of his proposals was to eliminate the State Board of Charities and Corrections, on the ground that its functions could be performed by other agencies.

The board had never been a costly factor in the state government: its appropriation in 1921 was $90,000 for two years; its six members are unpaid. Those who believed that state supervision of charities and corrections should be centralized in the hands of a group as non-political as possible took up the fight for the board. They protested against any plan that connected supervision of charities with the Board of Control, a budget agency, necessarily and properly political. Apparently they won: the bill that was to have abolished the board was withdrawn.

DURING 1923 the personnel of the board was unchanged. Four members held over from the previous administration. There were two vacancies. After one effort to oust the four—an effort thwarted by the state senate—the governor left them alone.

Early this year, however, he began to act. First he appointed to the board that member of the Board of Control who is also especially in charge of expenditures for state aid to dependent children: an appointment of questionable legality under the enabling act which established the board of charities and corrections.

Two or three weeks later, just before a meeting of the board, one of its members was notified by telegraph that her term of office having expired, her successor had been appointed. Two weeks later a second member received a letter of the same tenor. In the first case, that of Professor Jessica B. Peixotto of the University of California, there was some ground for action, although there was still a vacancy on the board. Miss Peixotto had been a member for twelve years; her third term of office had actually expired; and she was giving an increasing amount of time to other duties. This was by no means the case of the second incumbent, B. H. Pendleton, one of those rare persons in American public life—a retired business man giving full time in an unsalaried position. He had been occupying himself energetically and constructively with rural work, developing county welfare boards and organizing that neglected field—county charities.

In the face of these dismissals, the remaining two members of the old regime resigned. Father Ramm, Monsignor of the church, had been serving for twenty years with unswerving devotion, and had been president of the board for the past five years. Mrs. Sloss, a brilliant worker of long experience, and an influential citizen, had been chairman of the children's committee for three years. There was a dramatic meeting at which the four new appointees learned of their action; protests followed immediately, and the governor refused to accept the resignations. However, at this writing, he has not reappointed the two members. Meanwhile the executive secretary of the board and the executive heads of both the children's department and the county department have followed suit.

Of the new appointees, one, Dr. Rudolph I. Coffee, is a man of high repute and fine social imagination who believed he was being appointed to join a group already seasoned in the work. The others are the members of the Board of Control already mentioned, and two women who, whatever their qualifications, have never before been heard of in the general field of social work in California.

WHEN Anthony Comstock persuaded Congress in 1873 to pass the sections of the Criminal Code which closed the mails to smutty, obscene, and indecent writings and pictures, contraceptive information and devices were included in the ban but—some one omitted in the final form of the act a little qualifying clause which in earlier drafts had excepted scientific information on contraceptive methods sponsored by responsible medical authorities. The omission may have been accidental; at any rate it apparently happened without the realization of the men whose votes enacted the measure. For half a century its effect has been to close the mails to even the most scientific discussions, by physicians, of methods of birth control. The aim of the Cummins-Vaile bill, recently introduced in both houses, is to remove this ban, in so far as contraceptive information and devices are concerned which are endorsed by five licensed practicing physicians as not injurious to life or health. The measure has the active backing of the Voluntary Parenthood League, which is waging a national campaign for its enactment.

IN twenty-four states this federal regulation of the mails is the only legal bar to the giving of contraceptive information. Illinois is one of these "free states" where it is legal except in the use of the mails. For several years responsible groups of Chicago citizens have been engaged in a study of the birth control movement which finally resulted in the formation of the Illinois Birth Control League, with Dr. Rachelle Yarros as its president. A year ago the Chicago Women's Club invited Dr. Yarros to make a study of

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parents' clinics in England, and upon her report, evolved a plan for a similar clinic in Chicago, which would give contraceptive advice to married women whose mental, physical or economic conditions required it. Application for a license to operate the clinic, however, revealed the opposition of the mayor and the commissioner of health, who declared that such an institution is "against public policy, tends to corrupt morals, and is unlawful." When the case was carried into the Circuit Court the friends of the clinic won a striking victory in the decision of Judge Harry C. Fisher, who ruled that the city officials had not presented facts to support their contentions, and issued a writ of mandamus ordering them to grant the license. The matter was reopened when the archbishop asked permission to present additional evidence against the clinic. The court received these representations but Judge Fisher ruled that they gave no ground for altering his earlier decision. The case has been taken by the city authorities to the Appellate Court.

"However much the courts may respect religious doctrines," Judge Fisher declared in his decision, considering biblical passages submitted by the city authorities to uphold their position, "they must look to the law of the land alone for guidance in their judicial action, leaving the enforcement of purely theological principles to the power of moral persuasion of the ministers of the church. . . ." He continued:

> The courts should certainly refrain from declaring a thing immoral and in violation of a policy of the state, where reasonable minds differ as to its morality or immorality, or as to its public benefit or detriment. Particularly is this true of acts which a large or respectable portion of the community regards not only as moral and proper but as a decided benefit to society. Such acts, if they are to be prohibited at all, should be prohibited by legislative action and not by judicial interpretation. . . . I am loath to subscribe to the proposition that knowledge of birth preventive methods would materially lessen morality among young women. . . . Morality in a healthy state of society must depend upon the acceptance of it as a principle of life, and not upon fear and ignorance. . . . By offering the opportunity of obtaining knowledge on contraceptive methods, the use of them is left entirely to the wishes of the patients. At least in the light of the honest difference of opinion on this subject courts should not by judicial pronouncement, without legislation, condemn such an earnest movement as immoral and against public policy.

IN New York state there is a stringent law against the giving of contraceptive information verbally or otherwise. This has created the strong popular impression, which seems to be shared by a considerable proportion of the medical profession, that qualified physicians are prohibited from the use of contraceptive methods in treating patients who require them "to prevent or cure disease." This is not the case.

For a year a clinic in New York City, sponsored by the American Birth Control League, has been carried on successfully on this basis, while the supporters of the birth control movement have endeavored to arouse a popular support which would make possible a broadening of the existing law to include women whose mental or economic conditions make larger families inadvisable. In the course of this general educational campaign by the American Birth Control League, a birth control conference for New York state was scheduled for Syracuse on February 28 and 29. Arrangements had been made for the use of the leading hotel and of the auditorium of the Mizpah Baptist Church. But on February 18, in the last few minutes of its session and without discussion, the Common Council passed an ordinance which read:

> Be it ordained that any person or persons who shall congregate for the purpose of disseminating information about the subject of Birth Control shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

Such a legislative ban on any discussion of the subject is the boldest obstruction which the movement has yet met in this country and aroused the active opposition of those who felt, regardless of the merits of birth control, that it represented a point of view inconsistent with our traditional respect for freedom of speech. The measure was vetoed by Mayor Walreth, and failed by two votes to obtain the support necessary to re-pass it over his veto.

"GERMAN responsibility for the war is fundamental. It must be treated by the Allies as a *chose jugée.*" This dictum of the victors at Versailles was repeated by Lloyd George as late as 1921. But the question of responsibility refuses to "stay put" in this simple fashion. On the contrary, the publication of new documents has led an increasingly wide circle of serious men to reexamine the validity of this easy dictum. Recently Senator Owen brought up the issue in a three-hour speech in the Senate, based on his study the past summer and challenging the whole process of secret diplomacy.

At present there are at least three considerable organizations investigating the underlying question. In Germany the Zentralstelle für Erforschung der Kriegsursachen (Luisen str. 31a, Berlin, N. W. 6) is publishing a monthly Die Kriegsschuldfrage, with articles, new documents, and bibliographies, tending to show that Germany was not solely responsible. In France the Société de l'Histoire de la Guerre (39 rue du Colisée, Paris, VIII) publishes an equally valuable quarterly under the scholarly direction of M. Pierre Renouvin. Though both these publications aim at scientific truth and objectivity, they inevitably tend to give respectively the German and French points of view.

Less directly interested, and therefore perhaps better calculated to secure unbiassed results, is the Neutral Commission of Investigation into the Causes of the War (Laan van Meerdervoort 544, The Hague). This was organized by delegates of distinction from countries which remained neutral during the war. It includes men of such reputation as Professor Reuterskiold of Upsala, Dr. Drolsum, librarian of the University of Christiania, Dr. Japikse, director of the Dutch Board of Historical Publications, and Col. Immenhauser of the General Staff of the Swiss Army. This Neutral Commission has collected a large library, is sifting the documents, and has so far published a number of bulletins, but its activity is limited by insufficient funds. Those who wish to know of its work may do so by communicating with one of its members now in this country, G. Fasting, 908 Fullerton Ave., Chicago.

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COMMUNITIES

Federating from the Bottom Up

Progress in the community organization of social forces has not kept pace with the increase of service agencies. The Jews of Boston and Baltimore offer a fresh attempt to solve the problems resulting from this lag. Mr. Kaplan, superintendent of the United Jewish Social Agencies of Cincinnati, sketches this experiment. Will such decentralization work? Should all contacts with a family be made by a general social practitioner? Write The Survey what you think about it.

IN the slum section of one of our large eastern cities lives an immigrant family. The husband was taken ill about a year ago and has been practically bedridden ever since. The mother is illiterate, a bad housekeeper and entirely ignorant of American customs. Anna, the oldest child, a girl of sixteen, had become troublesome, largely because of the mother's lack of understanding and the poor home environment. George, a boy of twelve, had played truant repeatedly. Rose, seven years old, is bright for her age, but gives evidence of abnormal cruelty in her behavior to playmates and to dumb animals. There are two younger children, a girl of three and a baby of nine months. The family is entirely dependent.

There is a wealth of facilities in the community, and the problems of this family are apparently being handled well. Assistance is furnished by the Relief Society, and a case worker from that organization calls at least once in two weeks. The Home Economics Association sends a housekeeper at frequent intervals to instruct the mother in the proper management of her household. A neighborhood worker from the local settlement visits with more or less regularity to maintain a personal contact for that organization. A nurse from the Visiting Nurses' Association calls once a week to care for the man; another nurse from the Infant Welfare Station visits to help the mother carry out the instructions of the pediatrist. The Big Sisters Association became interested in the older girl, and assigned a worker. Similarly, to cope with the boy's delinquent tendencies, a big brother was appointed by the Big Brothers Association. The unusual behavior of Rose brought her to the attention of the Psychiatric Clinic, and a psychiatric worker was detailed to this problem.

The case here presented may be said to typify fairly, both in composition and in social disabilities, a large proportion of the families which come to the attention of social agencies. We find engaged, at the present time, two nurses from different organizations, a case worker from the Relief Society, a visiting housekeeper, a big sister, a big brother, a psychiatric worker, and a neighborhood worker from the settlement. Eight workers in all are visiting the home and dividing up the problem. It should be mentioned, too, that when the man was discharged from the hospital, after an acute illness, a medical social worker had visited for a time, and during the mother's last pregnancy, a nurse from the Maternity Association was interested. To the reader unfamiliar with actual case work, this array of cooperating agencies may seem incredible, but reference to the files of the confidential exchange in almost any community would prove that the condition occurs with striking frequency.

This chronicle of the resources brought to bear upon one family, indicates an outstanding weakness in the present scheme of social organization, namely, an overabundance of different societies rendering direct service in a particular case. When a half-dozen or more workers enter the home, however well intentioned and expert they may be and however well coordinated their efforts, the inevitable result is unduly to annoy and confuse the family. The variety of workers is a handicap to the development of intimate relationship, for an exchange of confidences and mutual respect is more likely when the mother looks to but one person as advisor and friend. It must be borne in mind also, that although in theory the respective duties of the several workers are distinct, in practice each worker cannot and should not be rigidly confined to the particular problem; this results in the introduction of varying viewpoints and even conflicting opinions. While attempts are made through case conferences and exchange of information to harmonize the working relationships, the machinery in operation is too cumbersome to control; and the pressure of work makes it impossible for the workers to confer with enough continuity to effect real coordination.

If the trend continues, we shall have an ever growing number of special case-work agencies and departments, and an ever larger number of workers engaged on each case. We may well view "progress" in this direction with misgiving, for the difficulties in pooling the resources of social case-work would thereby be increased rather than diminished. A remedy must be found in a new type of coordination, in a plan of preserving the advantages of specialist service without literally over-running the family.

Along with an over-specialization of function has gone an over-centralization of administration. Because of the development of city-wide societies which are called upon for every type of assistance, the old-time interest in and response to a neighbor in distress has in large part atrophied. The control of these societies is vested in limited groups, not at all representative of the districts served, nor do the neighborhoods participate in the administration. We have come to accept with equanimity the discharge of our social service obligations by making an annual contribution to some worthy philanthropy.

Thus neighborhood forces lie uncultivated, and become unresponsive. The absence of democratic control and participation is apparently justified on the grounds of efficiency, but among the tangible results are general lack of understanding of the work of social agencies, a small degree

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of support and interest, and gullibility to vicious attacks on "organized charity."

In Boston a few years ago, and more recently in Baltimore, there was begun an experiment in neighborhood organization known as "district service," which in principle is an attempt to meet these problems. While its development has not proceeded far, the idea is worthy of discussion.

The plan was set forth in 1917 as the basis for a general reorganization of the Boston Federated Jewish Charities. The city of Boston was divided into five fairly distinct Jewish districts, in each of which a Welfare Center was established to concern itself with and to coordinate all the social work for the locality. The Welfare Center is in charge of a head-worker with necessary staff, and is governed by a committee representative of the district. The individual districts are bound together by a General District Service Board, composed of delegates sent by the district committees. The function of this board is to receive appropriations from the federation and to formulate district service policies of a general character. The secretary of this board, a professional worker appointed by the federation, acts as supervisor of all the welfare centers. The worker in the district is the intermediary between all the needs of the people and the various charitable and educational agencies of the city, in order to reduce to a minimum the number of contacts between the societies and the family.

In Baltimore the experiment undertaken in 1920 as yet embraces but one district, the southwestern section of the city. The development here is particularly interesting because the initiative came from the neighborhood. The Hebrew Benevolent Association, the Jewish case-work agency of the city, was called in to provide leadership in organizing a social center. A general mass meeting was held, officers chosen and a constitution adopted. The purpose is thus set forth:

> to promote cooperation among the Jews of this section in all matters affecting their social and physical welfare by aiming to improve the conditions of the child, family, and neighborhood life, stimulating all undertakings to this end and providing such additional facilities as may be necessary.

The governing body is a council of 33 members—23 from the section itself, elected in mass meeting annually, and ten selected by the Hebrew Benevolent Society. The social work is directed by a secretary appointed by the Hebrew Benevolent Society with the approval of the neighborhood.

The district is a quiet residential section composed of small two-story brick houses and has a population of about 500 Jewish families, the majority of whom come from Ukrainia. Economically the group is of the lower middle class and politically of a liberal point of view. They are closely knit together by virtue of long residence—a large proportion own their homes—and there is a considerable degree of inter-relationship. The situation is unusually favorable for neighborhood organization. The societies in the locality comprise two lodges, an Arbeiter Ring (Workmen's Society), a Talmud Torah (Religious School), a small relief society, and two synagogues.

The district council which was formerly selected by the neighborhood organizations is now elected annually by the district membership. Any Jewish man or woman living in southwestern Baltimore and contributing to the Associated Jewish Charities is privileged to vote. This group approximates about 200, and the attendance at the last meeting was 75. The complexion of the council is as follows: an officer of the juvenile court, a dentist, a plumber, a foreman of a cigar factory, two merchant tailors, a grocer, the proprietor of a hardware store, two furriers, the manager of a tailoring concern, a butcher, three university students, the principal of the Talmud Torah, and the owners of two drygoods stores. The council meets monthly and helps to plan and direct activities. The meetings have been of decided educational value to many of the council members; several have developed latent qualities of leadership.

A close watch is kept upon expenditures. Every month a financial report is submitted to the council and at the annual meeting a full report is rendered as to the contributions of the neighborhood and cost of maintaining the house. It is significant that as against contributions of $400 in 1920 over $2,000 was secured during the past year. The neighborhood has its own team for campaign purposes and a standing committee of the district council collects delinquent subscriptions. The council has appointed a case committee which meets semi-monthly. Direct relief has been strikingly reduced because of their intimate knowledge of the inhabitants of the district, and because of the active service of the committee members, for example, in finding employment.

The Southwestern Jewish Center began modestly with a few rooms, but its quarters became congested, and last year the Hebrew Benevolent Association assisted in the purchase of a three-story brick building. In the center various recreational facilities are provided and a variety of clubs and classes is conducted; neighborhood organizations make it their headquarters. The neighborhood as a whole has acted on several occasions to correct unfavorable conditions—in closing an unwholesome poolroom, in securing traffic

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signs, in petitioning city officials for a public bath and for a local gymnasium. The secretary is in charge of the whole program, club work, class work, recreational work and case work. She handles all cases directly except those which she deems it advisable to transfer to special agencies, and there is therefore no problem of functional relations. The community has been using the facilities of the center to capacity, and comes freely to the secretary with its problems.

Drawn by Esther Andrews

When a half-dozen or more workers enter the home, however expert and well-intentioned they may be, the inevitable result is unduly to annoy and confuse the family

The essential principles of the plan as outlined both in Baltimore and in Boston are the decentralization of social service administration by giving each neighborhood control over its own problem; the establishment of one center as a clearing house for all services in the district; the use of the "generalized" worker or "social practitioner," i. e., one who endeavors to meet directly all the non-technical needs presented by the families of the district, and to serve as intermediary where technical services are imperative; and complete coordination of activities within the district.

It is, of course, too early to speak of accomplishments, yet despite the short history of the experiment and inevitable unforeseen difficulties, despite a large staff turnover and lack of skilled workers, the experience with the district service plan in Baltimore and Boston may be said to have shown some tangible results. There seems to be a more effective administration of social service resulting from maximum coordination among social agencies, from concentration of effort on small areas, from simplification of procedure by having one worker make all contacts, from the community point of view thus obtained, and from the intimate relationship which has developed between the district house and the community. In Baltimore the district case committee has proved of decided practical value because of its close acquaintance with the neighborhood families; the striking reduction in relief expenditures answers the possible objection that such a local committee would be careless in distributing money.

The plan has been a force for integration by providing in the district committee a common meeting ground for all opinions. This is especially evident in Baltimore, where the community was formerly a hot-bed of factional disputes. The committee here includes all elements: radical, conservative, orthodox and liberal. The opportunity to exchange views is leading to toleration, to better understanding and fundamental unity.

In the districts where conditions are not extremely unfavorable, the neighborhood is becoming interested and is securing an appreciation of social problems. This can be measured by the number of men and women who regularly attend the committee meetings, by the subjects discussed, and by the large proportion of volunteer leaders of activities recruited directly from the neighborhood.

In a few sections there is clear evidence of real democratic participation and control. The district councils are active bodies; the neighborhoods turn out for the annual meetings and there is a real interest in local issues. A radical change is noted in the attitude of these communities toward the federation; local campaigns for funds have been conducted by the neighborhood groups and in one case the district house was bought and donated to the federation. In one neighborhood the subscriptions to the federation were increased five-fold in three years.

In its emphasis upon the "generalized worker" who will attempt to deal with all types of case problems, the district service plan makes a contribution which should increase the attractiveness of the profession, and which should aid in the more effective performance of the work. There is no good reason why the competent worker cannot be so equipped as to serve the combined purposes of general case work, including relief, medical social service, psychiatric social service, protective and preventive child care—to mention only a few of our present specialties. Fundamentally the principles of sound case work in any one of these fields are essentially the same. The present division is artificial in breaking up what is really one task, and its effect must be to narrow the point of view of the worker. Were a survey to be made of workers in the specialty fields we should find remarkably few who are by temperament and training particularly well equipped for their tasks. *We have created special types of case work but we have few specialists.*

It should not be understood that the district service plan implies the elimination of the specialist. It provides for the use of the technician, but in a consulting rather than attending capacity, just as is the case in medicine. Generally speaking, there should be but one case worker in a family, corresponding to the general medical practitioner. The specialist is to be called upon for advice by the general case worker and would deal largely through the latter.

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Boston Proposes a League of Cities:

NEARLY a year ago, on March 26, 1923, certain citizens of Boston sponsored a petition to the Mayor and City Council, urging them to initiate a world conference of cities. It read:

> We, the undersigned, request that you enter into correspondence with the other cities of the world, unto the assembling of a World Municipal Conference; to bring to bear upon the crisis in human affairs, in addition to the present world-governing agencies, the voice and power of the cities. And to vote thereunto an appropriation of money.

The council modestly deferred action "until a similar sentiment could be stirred up in other cities whereby the call to such a conference would ensure a practical response." Such, at least, is the statement of the London Sociological Review in its issue for October 1923, which gave a page and a half to the discussion of the project for a world league of cities. This comment was based on a leaflet entitled Welt-Städtebund which appeared to be issued from Bremen by an association, with headquarters and a secretary, Hans Brandt, 22, Brokstrasse, which was said to be in touch with interested groups in Leipzig as well as Boston. The correspondent of the Review went on:

> Groups are now being formed in Germany. No attempt is being made at present to reach the cities in France, for the reason that the communities there are more advanced in this direction than probably anywhere else in the world. Over a thousand French cities and communes have confederated, in order to assert for themselves a voice in determining the destinies of France. It is officially known as L'Association Nationale des Maires de France, with headquarters at 14, rue Chauveau-Lagarde in Paris. Thus we have America coming into line; and Germany; and France. Now we need England. . . .

The Boston proposal, thus enshrined in a British translation of a German pamphlet, found its way to Bombay, whence there came in January of this year a letter to The Survey from Patrick Geddes, town-planner and philosopher, warmly endorsing it. His statement is on the opposite page.

In the meantime, however, Boston itself seems to have forgotten it. The conference project was an offshot from the plans of the Boston Tercentennial Association, which proposed to use the seven years 1923-30 in a "revival of citizenship" culminating in a celebration of the three hundredth anniversary of the settlement of the city. Bouck White wrote for the association a leaflet entitled Shall We Bostonianize? (copyright by the Four Seas Press) in which he asserted that

> Municipality is the human totality. The man whose mind is as big as Boston, is a complete man. To Bostonianize a man is to universalize him. Boston reaches down to the center of the earth, upwards to the stellar suns, and has relations commercial and political with every other city on the planet. Expand a mind and heart to the dimensions of Boston, and that man will be big enough to associate familiarly with God. . . .
>
> What is to be done? We must begin to Bostonianize. The Individual, the Family, the Municipality, the Nation, the World —those five; and the central unit of them is Municipality. There is the governmental seat by God appointed. There is reality. . . . The city that is not a city of God will be a city of the devil. A city of the devil is an uncomfortable place to live in. Merchandizers also are going to find that it is an unprofitable place permanently to do business in. A city of God, on the other hand, is a desirable site both for residential and manufacturing purposes.

But, an observer writes, "very little enthusiasm on the part of the citizens has been shown toward this movement." The association has long been silent; an inquiry addressed to the Boston agents brings no reply. Bostonians have not yet been universalized. Was the shot heard 'round the world a blank?

This provides the same degree of technical service without the confusion which results from a number of workers dealing with the family and acting more or less independently.

District service is to be recognized as a movement diametrically opposite in principle to the present-day tendency to extend the control and administration of social service agencies by a central body. District service is locality autonomy, to be understood as a vesting of ultimate power in the neighborhood, and a building of federations from the bottom up. It may be regarded as a definite phase in the development of social service—first the haphazard creation of independent organizations, then the pooling of effort for fund-raising purposes, followed by the absorption of power, and now the reaction to autonomy on a geographical basis (not that these stages are distinct or must necessarily appear in this sequence). The development results from the ponderous character of the large agency, from its impersonality, from its distance, from its inability to reach the community as a whole, from its lack of democracy—in general from the operation of the law of diminishing returns.

IN considering the applicability of district service, we must distinguish between its mechanical aspects and the broad social values which are sought. As a mechanical device, the small geographical unit has proved effective in securing maximum results in a variety of fields. The public health movement, for example, works with the neighborhood as its base. Relief societies in the larger cities have long districted their work. Mere physical contiguity is a time saver, making it possible to reach one's clientele more quickly. From this point of view district service is generally applicable.

It is the broader social value of district service—its democratic goal—which proves extremely difficult of realization. This is due to the fundamental problems of the present-day neighborhood. Not much more than a century ago, the neighborhood was synonymous with community, a natural division of social life; it was a unit in religion, race, tradition, politics. Today the old neighborhood has passed away, and neighborliness has disappeared. We must frankly face this dark side of the picture, which in large measure accounts for the little progress made as yet by such experiments as the social unit and community councils. But the picture is far from hopeless. The Jewish neighborhoods of East Boston and Southwest Baltimore illustrate that community consciousness can become a fact.

Democracy implies at least three essentials—constitutional control by the entire citizenship, actual participation or exercise of one's constitutional privilege, and general appreciation of the problems involved. The last standard is paramount, for without understanding the shell of democracy is empty. The district service plan, if it is to spread

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A Shot Heard Round the World

THIS scheme for a World League of Cities is of great interest and possibilities; and it is not a little encouraging to see this arising on one side from the old Hanseatic city of Bremen and from Leipzig, second only to Paris—with its International Exhibitions, each a Foire de Paris—as surviving center of those great fairs which from old have done much for commerce and culture. Such a well-initiated movement is thus no doubt destined to spread throughout Germany, as so largely a land of historic free cities. Its other center, Boston, has been the foremost spiritual metropolis of America, for the past three centuries; and with such great and honorable traditions, this movement is in all ways full of promise for its country; and should be of wider influence, throughout the English-speaking world especially.

The occasion is one which should be seized to arouse all lovers of their cities and to mobilize our too greatly scattered students of civics as well. Here, in London, for instance, it cannot but appeal to the various groups of Le-Play House, like the Civic Education League, the Cities Committee of the Sociological Society, and so on. The Town Planning Institute, the London Society and Museum, and kindred organizations will also be interested. And so too the Regional Association—throughout all its centers from Aberdeen and Edinburgh to Liverpool, to Wales, and to Southampton. So with the kindred regionalist studies and activities in France, and in other countries, as so notably at Barcelona, and more.

It is however well to mention, and not as a mere reclamation of priority, but as further evidence of the vitality and need of this movement, that this very conception has already taken form; and that definitely; in the Congres Internationale des Villes held at Ghent Exhibition in 1913. For this led to the formation of an Union Internationale des Villes, which has since been far from inactive, despite inevitable interruption by the war. This union has since been one of the many well-organized international associations, with their periodic congresses, of which the Association des Associations Internationales serves as clearing-house; and of which the general administration has been so long and so ably carried on by M. Paul Otlet and Senator La Fontaine, in connection with their well-known Institut de Bibliographie Internationale, and with other recent developments like the Palais Mondial with its many-sided museums, so largely regional and civic. Its important vacation gathering of students and teachers from all countries seeks even to develop as an international university, of which it has fully the right spirit. Such organizations thus already offer admirable centers for this new movement—and it is surely inconceivable that they should all not set about cooperating from the outset.

In this connection one may indeed also recall that the first idea of this Congres International des Villes arose in discussion with M. Otlet at Edinburgh late in 1912, on his visit to the Outlook Tower to arrange for the loan of its Cities and Town Planning Exhibition to the Ghent Exhibition of 1913—and thus was at least partly suggested by this visual presentment of civics, as at once a comprehensive science and an internationally progressive art. Yet also by the definite instance of what is one of the very few surviving examples, if not indeed the last, of a national union of cities surviving from the middle ages, the Convention of Royal Burghs of Scotland, which had been holding its annual meeting in Edinburgh some time before. But all this would not have been enough, without Mr. Otlet's rare combination of the great tradition of the Flemish cities, with his modern internationalism and his rare organizing experience and powers.

PATRICK GEDDES

and succeed, must provide for a vigorous and continuous program of neighborhood education on public issues. The membership must be brought together frequently and regularly to consider their problems; the attempt must be made to effect real deliberation. The failure of a few preliminary efforts should not result in discouragement and the cessation of activity. The re-creation of the community is the task of the century.

HYMAN KAPLAN

Endowment Earnings

This is the fourth of Mr. Norton's sketches in social finance. The concluding paper will deal with revenues from taxation.

EARNINGS from endowments or permanently invested funds produce a smaller volume of income than the other three major sources of revenue for social progress. The consolidated annual current budget of Philadelphia's private philanthropies received a few years ago $3,500,000 from endowment earnings. Boston's private agencies got $2,650,000 from this source; Chicago's $1,086,000; Cleveland's $660,000; Cincinnati's $262,000; Detroit's $260,000.

Buildings and equipments given an institution or organization for the conduct of its work are of course endowments. But we set out in this series to confine our discussion to sources of actual revenue by means of which agencies pay their current bills, and it seems advisable therefore to exclude the acquisition of plant and extraordinary equipment.

Endowments appear to have come to the organizations which hold them in four general ways. A living person has either started an organization and endowed it, or endowed an existing one. He may have done this out of first-hand interest, or as a memorial. Again endowments have come from the testamentary bequests of those who are deceased. A third set of funds may be accounted for by the simple process of accumulating balances when ordinary income exceeded outgo. And a fourth method has been for an organization to set aside a portion of property increment when property has been sold. By far the largest amount of the endowment we are considering originates from bequests. Very little comes from accumulated balances, or the sale of property at increased values.

Educational institutions, in the past, have been far more successful in securing these sought after funds than organized social work. The reasons are fairly obvious. The Anglo-Saxon endowment tradition is very old. America's early attempts at socialization revolved about education, resulting in the private school and the private college. Those who profited from the early training of these institutions were

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frequently wealthy or became wealthy later in life, and out of gratitude responded to the pleas of alma mater for support in the good old-fashioned way, the establishment of endowment funds.

The Endowed East

The endowment exists at present chiefly in the East, with only an occasional oasis in a decidedly barren West. If we draw a line along the crest of the Alleghenies and turn our faces eastward we shall see the narrow strip along the Atlantic seaboard spotted with thousands of bequests of all sizes given under all sorts of conditions. If we face the great expanse of country westward, we shall not find ten centers where in all their histories the total number of gifts made to endowment run into three figures. Boston, an old settlement, a big city early in its career, and the home both of social consciousness and of wealth many years ago, has an accumulation of endowments in the possession of its private agencies that runs well above $50,000,000. Chicago, larger and probably wealthier, has a little less than half as much. Detroit, an old settlement, but a small community until recently, with wealth that is largely new, can boast of not more than $6,000,000 of income-bearing securities thus far accumulated.

A third noticeable factor is the slowness of endowment growth. The Boston accumulation, viewed as a lump sum, is immense. Yet considering the age and wealth of Boston and the fact that the earliest endowments date back considerably more than two hundred years, one is justified in concluding that even in this home of the endowment habit, growth must have been fairly slow.

How Boston Bequeaths

The story of the Boston accumulation, as I read it, is a story of community habit; beginning on a small scale; faltering along for years; driven forward fitfully by the spasmodic efforts of isolated workers and the spasmodic generosity of givers; accelerating a little as the habit began to penetrate the upper reaches of responsible wealth; and gaining momentum as the emerging social consciousness was fostered by a rising body of intelligent board members and social executives who began deliberately to enlist the cordial interest of wealthy men and women. It has not been an organized movement, but a matter of individual influence, individual effort and individual good will. It is the story of a coral accretion.

This diagnosis may not be correct. Boston expresses divided opinions on the subject. One authority on social organization there says,

> A great deal of the large capital endowment of Boston agencies is money given inter vivos and transferred to capital account by agencies wilfully curtailing expenditures or finding their income larger than their needs, who desire to build up a capital fund.

William H. Pear, general agent of the Boston Provident Association, who has inquired into the revenues that support social work in Boston expresses another view. He says,

> I believe the endowments of Boston have been the result of slow accumulations; the gifts of old friends of the agencies who were accustomed to support them during their lifetimes and who remembered them in their wills.
>
> It is safe enough to say, I think, that the same type of person who in earlier years gave this money in trust to the city (early bequests made to the Overseers of the Public Welfare), has during the past sixty or seventy years been endowing our private agencies. So far as I have discovered the legacies to the Overseers since the founding of the Boston Provident Association have numbered but five and have yielded something short of $50,000 in the aggregate, the latest one having reached them over twenty years ago. The legacies to the Provident Association in the meantime have numbered seventy-six. The few other charities with which I am best acquainted would, I am confident, show a list of bequests nearly as long although the total amount might not equal ours. At the present time our total invested fund is $453,672 (market value September 30th, 1923). Needless to say it is therefore one of the twenty-three which in my statistical study were reported to have interest bearing funds yielding over $25,000 annually. . . .
>
> In 1923, of 337 Boston charitable agencies reporting to the state, 118 reported the receipt of legacies the total sum of which was $1,745,404. There are sixteen which show legacies in excess of $25,000.

Mr. Pear's studies are of further interest, when they disclose the fact that 40 per cent of the interest-bearing funds are in the possession of health agencies, primarily hospitals. A miscellaneous unclassifiable group of agencies, representing the genial whimsicalities of the philanthropic world, have the next largest chunk, 30 per cent. Children's agencies hold third place with 13 per cent. Homes for the aged, family helping agencies, and neighborhood organizations trail along with the remainder.

A similar analysis of Chicago benefactions made by Ferris F. Laune, secretary of the philanthropic department of the Wieboldt Foundation of that city, shows that 51 per cent of the interest-bearing funds of that city are in the possession of health agencies, again mostly hospitals, and 36 per cent are in the vaults of the children's agencies. The experience of new Chicago therefore seems to confirm the hint from old Boston that the average person with money to bequeath to social work is inclined to pick out an institution where the heart throb is at least audible.

The Foundations

Looking over the country at large, we find some comparatively recent happenings in the endowment field that are significant. One of them is the growth of the so-called foundation. While the foundation is really a development of the very ancient habit of making bequests or creating living trusts, it has taken on certain phases in the last thirty or forty years that make it distinctive.

As one reads the story of Mr. Carnegie's development as a philanthropist, one gets light on the mental processes of many of those who have started individual foundations. Mr. Carnegie undertook early in his giving career to supervise personally his gifts, and gave to existing organizations only after investigation. As time went on his interests expanded beyond these going enterprises, and he began to create institutions of his own and endow them. Gradually he grew into a realization that his business life had not given him the sociological experience which enabled him to continue in this course in a way that satisfied his own standards of efficiency. He seems to have concluded that the most satisfactory way of using his wealth in a wider sphere was to create more generalized corporations, whose officers and employes would serve him in the capacity of useful spending with the same indefatigable application that the employes of his money-making corporations gave to him. So he created more general trusts which were not only to take care of his personal gifts and of his personal (*Continued on page* 715)

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INDUSTRY

Marta Gyömröy Leads the Way

IN all probability they came from the Magyar Wolfram-lampa Gyàr, Budapest—those beautiful little hand-colored electric globes representing a Santa Claus and a monkey, a tulip and a rose, which you indulged in as your special extravagance for the youngsters' Christmas tree. They are all shipped to America (they cost too much to find a European market). And it is the Wolfram-lampa Gyàr which illustrates in the industrial field the Hungarian habit of allotting to picturesque personalities the task of leadership in its new efforts in social work.

Of the three directors of this factory of 700 employes only one, Mr. Zaborsky, has real comprehension of the work Marta Gyömröy is trying to accomplish. It was he, with a background of 18 years' residence in foreign countries, who originally had the vision and courage to ask Sarolta Lukacs to help him bring common sense and sound reason into the factory's personnel relations where, hitherto, prejudice, indolence and whim had reigned.

Sarolta could not go herself. She had other fish to fry—slippery, jumping fish—as any one can realize, if he will add, to the ordinary difficulties surrounding the direction of the cooperative effort of twenty-eight social agencies, the nervous instability produced in a temperamental people of many races and religions by eight years of war, revolution, invasion, isolation and suffering.

But fundamental reforms in Hungarian industry were too crying a need for this opportunity to be quite cast aside. So Sarolta asked for a two-weeks holiday. This was, however, to be no lie-abed, restful vacation. Instead she was up each day at five-thirty—and at work by seven: cutting glass, sorting, blowing, welding—going from task to task, from machine to machine and studying each process until she had attained a fair proficiency—studying also the nature of the management and of the employes—and thinking, thinking: which one of the girls with a good background in languages, sociology and economics, had the right personality to make her place in this factory?

Marta Gyömröy, despite her extreme youth, was the person selected and then broken in by personally mastering each process, as Sarolta had done. The wisdom of this choice can best be judged by the work accomplished in the past six months since Marta took her place in the First Aid room at the factory. To appreciate the significance of this accomplishment one must remember that previous to this no similar work had been undertaken in Hungary, and that Miss Gyömröy was fourteen when the war and Hungary's isolation began. Therefore, although she has been a student of these questions for six years, she has never seen, with her own eyes, a similar set-up in any other country.

Choosing New Workers

To bring some vestiges of reason into the employment of new workers was the first task. Formerly whim, fancy and flirtation had largely determined a girl's chances of being taken on in any of the various departments. A serious effort is now on foot to systematize this matter and to fit square pegs into square holes. Each applicant is studied with respect to certain basic qualifications. Does she live too far away? If she does, the chances are that the time consumed in transit will, in the end, cause her to seek employment nearer home. Therefore, unless she seems a specially desirable employe in other ways it would be wiser for her not to waste her time learning processes she will soon abandon. When one works from 7 a. m. to 6 p. m. with an hour for lunch, it is not humanly possible to have enough energy remaining for enthusiasm about a long ride in a crowded, slow-moving street-car. Then too, the wages paid in Hungary are so low that they do not permit extensive street-car riding. Workers of proved ability, living at a distance, are provided with car-tickets by the management.

The wage system in this factory combines three methods of payment—payment on an hourly basis, flat piece-work, and premium piece-work. Piece-work rates are established by the best worker's day's output. Twenty-five per cent is then deducted from her output, and the relation between the remaining number of pieces, the "real maximum," and a so-called living wage is computed. Until a worker reaches this "real maximum" she is paid by the hour—the "ground wage."

For children under 16 the time-rate varies from 30,000 to 36,000 kronen a week (30,000=$1.00 at present exchange on the Black Bourse. Official rates are 50 per cent lower), for those over 16 it is from 40,000 to 45,000 kronen, and the piece-work average is 65,000 to 70,000 a week. It usually takes three months to reach this average wage. Premium piece-rates are paid in two classes—to those whose output is more than 10 per cent and less than 20 per cent above the "real maximum," and to those whose output is from 20 per cent to 25 per cent above this maximum.

In picking new workers, references from former employers or school teachers are next taken into consideration. Average length of stay in former employments is noted. The findings of a medical examination are recorded (no one with signs of lung trouble can be employed on account of the injurious effects to be expected from the glass-blowing processes). And finally a series of psycho-motor tests are applied to determine for which processes the applicant is particularly unfitted and at what type of work she could, with least effort, achieve the best results.

Four Searching Tests

The ingenious series of psycho-technical tests have been devised with particular reference to the tasks to be performed in the factory. They were worked out by factory employes in consultation with expert psychologists. Besides a simple test for color blindness and its variations, there are four little devices which aim to be self-proving.

The first of these is a sight test. An open square, across which six wires of decreasing diameter are stretched at

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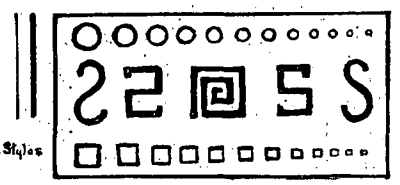
equal distances—leaving a blank space where 24 more invisible wires *might* be stretched. This is erected on a meter-stick. The applicant, sighting this object at a given distance, is asked to count the filaments. The too-eager applicant cheerfully counts thirty wires. With her finger she can then feel that there are six, thus learning that it does not pay to pretend you are cleverer than you are in this queer place where they set you to playing games before they set you at your task.

Next she is given a heap of little glass rods, with one, two or three globules blown on them at equal distances. With these rods comes a box in three sections. She is asked to classify the rods in the box as quickly as possible. The time for this operation and the number of mistakes are then recorded.

She is spared that insulting question "Do you smoke or drink?" but the sureness of her touch is tested by a tremomotor, as fascinating as any Christmas puzzle. This tremomotor is a metal plate connected with a buzzer. In the plate rows of holes of decreasing diameter, and fantastic designs formed of lines about an eighth of an inch wide have been cut. With this come stylos of increasing diameters—all smaller than the width of the designs. The trick is to place the suitable stylo in the very centre of each hole, and then, to draw it through the centre of each design with so steady a hand that it does not touch the edge and establish an electrical connection which rings the buzzer. If you can do this with the largest stylo you can be trusted with the most delicate work in the factory.



For the last game of the series you are given an innocent looking cylinder. On the top of this is a circle of opaque glass with one black radius drawn on it. Erected at the centre of this circle are six moveable wire radii. Using the fixed radius as a guide, your task is to arrange these six wires equidistant, like slices of a pie. As soon as you announce that you have done your best a light comes on inside the cylinder, silhouetting five hitherto unseen brothers to the one fixed radius and proving to your own entire satisfaction either that your judgment was faulty or correct.

That is the advantage of these tests. One does not feel that there is someone sitting in judgment on one's way of life, one's appearance or one's morals. One is simply proving *to oneself* what one can do. And instead of resenting it, the girls love it! It is even suspected that some of them quit and re-apply in order to have a chance to play the puzzles over again! (But Miss Gyömröy is at work studying the causes of labor turnover and the question of opportunities for recreation, so this, if it is indeed the case, will soon be discovered and corrected!)

Suitable "weights" are given to the various qualifications and performances of the applicants and thus the "mark" for the "examination" is statistically determined. Those with the higher marks are then selected, according to their abilities, for the departments requiring workers. They are then given their time-cards and introduced personally to their respective foremen. This is particularly helpful to children of fourteen coming to their first job in enabling them to overcome their fear of a strange environment. Even older women appreciate the personal interest shown by this little bit of extra trouble.

Hazards of the Work

So far, so good—but what do they go to? An opportunity to earn a little—very little—money and to work under a whole roof in a warm room—opportunities for which they are tragically eager. But that warmth is the uneven, death-dealing heat that fells glass-blowers right and left—and under that roof one works side by side with open cases of tuberculosis, or one speeds up at a process requiring such deft, swift movements of the wrist and fingers that mass hysteria is the dominant note in the whole department—or one washes bulbs in the "death chamber"—the room that puts the "frost" in frosted globes—breathing fumes of acid which are said to prove fatal in three months' time. Only wood and rubber can withstand this acid. Rubber gloves are a Gyömröy innovation in this department. But unless Marta personally supervises their issue the antagonistic forces in the management see to it that they are "forgotten."

During the summer this bulb-dipping task was moved outdoors, and an effort is now being made to alternate processes, so that one will only do "death-chamber work" for two weeks at a time, having a month's relief at healthier work. As this means that three times as many people will have to take their lessened chances with the fumes, it is a difficult change to effect.

Marta Gyömröy realizes perfectly that the greatest benefit can only accrue to the workers through technical reorganization—the discovery and introduction of machines less dangerous to health—the shortening of hours—the betterment of wages. Fortunately the technical reorganization of this factory is under consideration, and in the meanwhile, Marta believes that much can be done toward developing the consciousness and solidarity of this unorganized group of women and child workers as well as toward protecting them from some of the grosser evils of their lot.

On a Cooperative Basis

She has staunchly stood out against the paternalistic approach, insisting on the cooperative basis for her activities. She is there not merely to mitigate some of the larger stupidities of a hitherto thoughtless management, but to assist the workers to establish cooperative enterprises for self-help. To accomplish this under the present system of industrial organization she must move carefully in order to avoid all suspicion that her activities have a political bearing, either in favor of Christian Socialism, the "right" or managerial party, or on the side of the Social Democrats —the workers' party. Any evidence of partisanship on her part would ruin her opportunities to serve existing human needs.

The management offered to permit class-work time to come out of factory hours. Knowing the psychology of her people sufficiently well to realize that such a move would prejudice the employes against educational activities, Miss Gyömröy declined this opportunity in favor of organizing study groups outside of working hours, on a cooperative basis. What you want and choose and work and pay for (even though you pay but a cent a month, as is the case here) brings far greater psychic returns, Miss Gyömröy believes, than what is generously handed down to you by the management. Further, it is conceivable that the experience

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of working together to organize educational and recreational activities may at length give solidarity and ability sufficient to enable this unorganized group to hold together in arranging a collective bargain for a shorter working day.

A lunch room and a cooperative store are felt needs among the workers. Miss Gyömröy hopes to provide the leadership which will enable them to secure these things.

Steps Already Taken

Paid vacations were introduced this year for the first time. These range from three days for employes of one year's standing to two weeks for five years' service. A cooperative camp was established in the country where employes could obtain holiday pleasures at minimum rates. The Hungarian Red Cross assisted in sending some of the delicate girls whose resources were too limited to enable them to take advantage of this opportunity unaided.

Miss Gyömröy has also been instrumental in arranging entertainments for the workers and their children. This is merely a question of organization, as artists and others have given their services free on request. In all these undertakings she endeavors to delegate responsibility in order to give the girls themselves the experience in organization. She is there to offer advice and guidance on request, and to act as the agent or the servant of the workers in doing any errands which they are not free to do themselves. She sees her job as that of liaison officer between the workers and the management, the management and the workers, and the workers and the resources of the city and near-by country. Her effort is to understand, to interpret, to adjust, and to serve the workers.

Aspirations on File

To this end she has devised a confidential case file recording the social history of each employe together with notes as to their life-aspirations. This file is not yet in operation, and when one knows something of the difficulties and routine of the daily tasks of this personnel department one doubts if so complicated a mechanism can be successfully operated under present circumstances. However, it is interesting as an indication of Miss Gyömröy's method that she has prepared a face-sheet for this file, and that on this face-sheet she has many more "human-interest" questions than we would ever think of. Here we have proof—if we need it after watching her—that she envisages her work in very human terms, and that without making in any way a sentimental approach, she nevertheless lives in hope that her work may serve to improve the conditions of her fellow-workers not only physically, economically and mentally, but that in some indefinable way, through bringing sustenance to their whole natures, it may also be the means of bringing them certain spiritual enrichment, without which the average Hungarian feels that his life is poor indeed—too poor to be worth living.

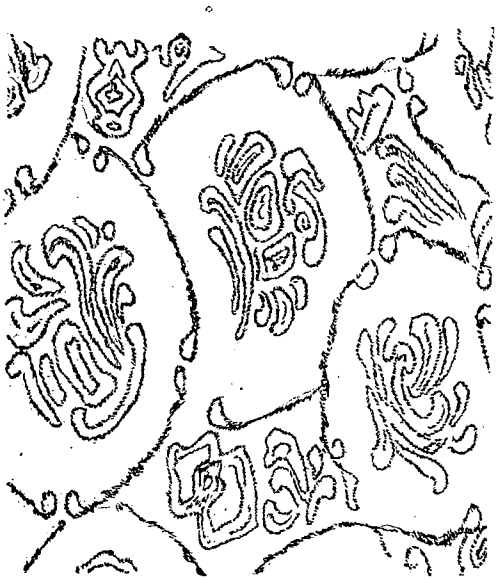
The problem now troubling Miss Gyömröy is the future place of this type of social work. The government has taken notice of the methods and results of the undertaking and is considering employing organizers who shall stimulate its duplication in factories throughout Hungary. "Is it a sound move?" Miss Gyömröy cannot help asking herself. "Is it sound social evolution or is it 'handing something down?' Is it an action with which I wish to ally myself? Would the work not have a firmer foundation if it could be presented on a commercial basis—as sheer good business? And should it not follow, rather than precede, technical reorganization? Therefore, rather than assist the ministry, had I not better bestir myself about to the incorporation of a company of technical experts which shall promote and establish personnel work in the factories which it 'treats' and which shall receive its reward in the form of a fixed percentage of the increased earnings of the factories treated? Or would this association between increased production and personnel work have a tendency to re-orient personnel work in such a way that it would lose its human significance, sacrifice all hope of integrity, and become a mere adjunct to the speeding-up process?"

Marta Gyömröy is so much a pioneer in her field, so truly a student of her problem that she is full of questions and uncertainties. She does not pretend that she has found, devised or inaugurated the one panacea for the alleviation of all human ills, she can admit that in an ideal state with an ideal industrial organization there would be no place for such work as hers. She keeps her philosophy fluid. One feels that, for her, values are found not in cut-and-dried theories but in keen effort, constant self-criticism, and vital human relationships.

CAROLYN FRANCES KENNEDY

Beauty and the Machine

THE machine, for all its services to mankind, has so often been represented in the role of Beast in relation to Beauty in the life of the world that it has come to stand as a symbol of ugliness. Lovers of antique excellence and glamorous Gothic grace, men like Morris and Ruskin and their host of peers and disciples, have made spiritual liberation synonymous with the overthrow and banishment of the quantity production machine. The machine made democracy possible, and the aristocratic critics of democracy have branded it as a kind of spawning barbarism, fattening on quantity, hopelessly insensible to quality. "Cheap and nasty" has been their epithet both for the human and the commercial product of the machine.



A fabric made by J. A. Migel Inc., and named Spiral Spun, has Jacquard embroidery applied on silk-and-wool crepe. This tracing of a design was made from a photograph lent by the Metropolitan Museum

But there have been those who have seen in the machine just another tool inviting mastery at the hands of the craftsman, the creative designer, the artist, —a tool infinitely complex and recalcitrant, but yet only an extension of the human brain and hand not essentially different from the ax, the adze, the awl, the plane, the gauge, the

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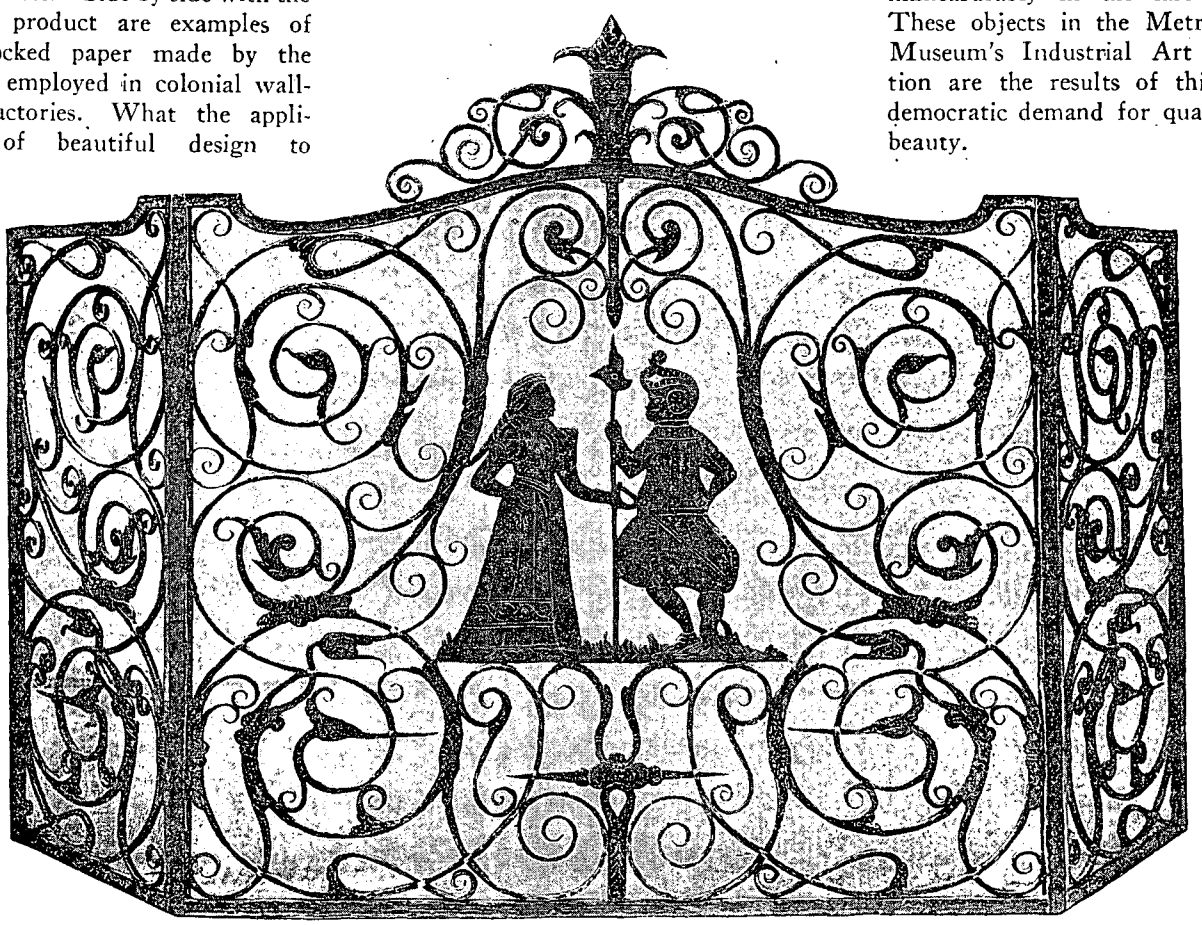
amazing variety of tools in the guildsman's kit as these are viewed in historical retrospect against the flints of paleolithic and neolithic man. For them, "cheap and nasty" has not been an inherent characteristic either of democracy or machine production, but an incident in the slow struggle of the soul of man to reassert the dominion of beauty and excellence over this strange new extension of the human brain.

The approaching vindication of this faith is forecast in an exhibition of industrial art at the Metropolitan Museum, New York. The condition of admittance to this special exhibition is that the objects placed on view must be the product of manufacturers engaged in quantity production for the open market, that they must represent the actual stock in trade of the exhibiting firm or individual, and that they must have been designed and executed in the United States. It is difficult to believe that the objects exhibited are not authentic antiques. This impression is due in part to the strong tendency of the designers to lean upon patterns of colonial or oriental derivation, but it is primarily due to the designer's success in making the machine obedient to his creative will. Very few of the pieces express complete emancipation from the unaccustomed complexities of the machine; but their crudities are for the most part like the rough earth that clings to the figures emerging into sentience in Rodin's Hand of God. There are linens and cretonnes that show how technically beautiful quantity production can be; rugs, tapestries, silks, brocades, power-woven velvets and plushes of distinguished excellence. There are colorful and exquisite examples of the tile-maker's, potter's, enamel and glass-worker's inspiration and skill. There are machine-made wall papers that give hope of a new era in the interior decoration of the home of moderate financial resources. Side by side with the machine product are examples of hand-blocked paper made by the methods employed in colonial wall-paper factories. What the application of beautiful design to the machine signifies for our generation is illustrated by the Metropolitan Museum's official notes on these hand-blocked papers:

> With the hand-block methods, two men working together could at best produce a few yards of paper each day. At the present time two men with modern power-driven machinery can print in a single twenty-four hours as many miles of paper as the earlier men accounted for in yards. . . . To make a certain one of the hand-blocked papers now on view it was necessary to cut two hundred and twenty blocks and to plan out four hundred and nine tones and colors. The initial cost of creating this handsome wall covering amounted to ten thousand dollars before a single yard was sold.

Obviously if beautiful wall coverings are to be generally accessible, the creative designer must master the machine as his tool. That bauty and the machine are not natural enemies the examples of modern "quantity" wall paper in this exhibition show.

Possibly the most encouraging fact stressed by the Metropolitan Museum and the exhibitors is that the intensified effort of quantity manufacturers to wed beauty to the machine is being made in response to a commercial demand. Sales, they assure us, depend increasingly upon the quality of design. One silk manufacturer went to the expense of making patterns, engraving the rollers and printing a quantity of silk, only to find that he could not sell a yard of it because the market was not satisfied with the design. A silver manufacturer made the same mistake in producing plates which he had to cast back into the melting pot. And what is true of silks and silver is happily becoming increasingly true of furniture, wall papers and cotton fabrics. We seem definitely to have gone beyond the period of golden oak horrors; the popular aesthetic standard has risen immeasurably in the last decade. These objects in the Metropolitan Museum's Industrial Art Exhibition are the results of this rising democratic demand for quality and beauty.



Handwrought fire screen by Edward F. Caldwell and Co. Inc. Photograph lent by the Metropolitan Museum

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French Farmers Go to Town

ONE of the alarming consequences of the war in France is the accelerated diminution of the farming population. The fighting element of the army was mostly composed of farmers and farmers' sons; 900,000 of them died on the battlefield—a much larger proportion than that of workmen and city-people. Those 900,000 were young and able-bodied men: their loss is direly felt. But besides this shortage, there is another one rising from a large exodus from the country to cities. Where does this come from?

There seems to be every reason, at the present time, for farmers to stay on the farms and be contented. The high cost of living (due to various causes, but mainly to the disproportion between the growers and the consumers of food products) secures great profits to country people. They don't spend much more (those at any rate, who cultivate their own fields—which most French peasants do), and they sell everything they produce at much larger prices. Many signs of increased prosperity are to be seen: better clothes, more elegant carriages, automobiles, more substantial houses and furniture, extensive traveling on railroads, etc. Yet these bettered conditions are not sufficient to keep the farmers in the villages. The war has created a dissatisfaction with the quiet, uneventful life of the country. Country-bred people want company, diversions, intellectual stimulus, all that constitutes variety and adventure—a necessary food, it seems, to the modern mind. They grow dissatisfied also with dirty labor; they prefer the clean work of office, shop and even factory. This lure, for the greater part, is mere illusion; many discover it after some time, but too late to return to the fields and resume their former mode of life.

On the other hand there is a larger demand for labor in the factories, especially in the devastated regions, where there are so many houses to rebuild, so much industrial work to start again, so many new positions in the reparation bureaus, so many refugees to replace. There is a larger demand also on the railroads and in the factories all over the country on account of the eight-hour law, which is one of the serious causes of the shortage of hand labor. Young country folk, especially disbanded soldiers, have flocked to fill these new positions, deserting the village and the farm.

France has had to resort to immigration to fill her new needs of hand labor—a very new occurrence in a country that had been thus far very homogenous, especially in the provinces. Many Africans—Arabs, Berbers, Moroccans, who had been introduced from the colonies during the war, have remained. It was a necessity, but it is not always a gain. There are many country places in industrial regions where it is not safe for women to be alone in the fields or on the roads. A number of murders have taken place lately, committed by half-savages excited by liquor or lust.

There are better elements. A regular arrangement was passed with the Italian and Polish Governments to regulate the immigration of Italian and Polish workmen. The Italians become good laborers in factories; they don't always stay long; as soon as they have saved some money, they return to the land of sunshine. But others take their places. The Poles come with their families, often from Westphalia and other places in Germany. They work in the mines and form an excellent element of the population. In the south there are Spaniards who come as laborers and fruit dealers. In the east and the north, a number of Belgians and Swiss cross the frontiers. The latter two foreign elements are the only ones that come to do farm work. Many are attracted by the high wages at the time of the harvest and the grape-gathering; but they return to their homes after they have pocketed the bonanza wages. We barely mention the general conditions of the problem. It will be sufficient to show that France has now an immigration question, like America, and is beginning to frame an immigration policy, in order to sift the immigrants, encourage the better elements and keep off the undesirables. Very little has been done yet. The precedent of American legislation will probably be taken into account, when it comes to decide upon actually consistent and efficacious measures.

The immigrants do not help us much to solve the problem of the exodus to the cities. It is a question of home policy. Some steps have already been taken. There are societies to encourage the return to the country. A few countrymen, after having discovered that the city is not the Eden that they had pictured to themselves in their dreams, may be induced to go back to the plough. In the case of these men —small as their number may be—advice, suggestions, some money help may be useful to strengthen a wavering purpose.

An interesting scheme is that known as "inner colonization." It consists in removing from one congested province rural families to a depopulated region. Depopulation is especially extensive in the fertile and wealthy "departments" of the southwest (Dordogne, Houte-Garonne, Lot-et-Garonne), where, it seems, comfort and ease have prevented the growth of large families and where flight from the country is a marked evil. On the contrary, there are many families in Brittany that can hardly draw an insufficient pittance from the barren and overcrowded soil. The migration of five hundred Breton families to unoccupied farms in the southwest was organized by the intermediary of the Ministry of Agriculture. They need no capital. The system of tenure is *métayage*—the landlord provides both agricultural instruments and live stock, and the profit is divided half and half.

Lastly, let us mention the government scheme of "electrification of the rural districts." Parliament has voted appropriations, which are to be eked out by subsidies coming from the countries, in order to harness all the available sources of water power (mountain torrents, old mill weirs, river rapids, etc.). It is expected that cheap electric power can thus be sold to every farm and village, not only for lighting, but for all farm work, threshing, beet-root cutting, hay-pressing, churning, and, where it is possible, machine-ploughing and harrowing. This will make up for deficient hand labor and alleviate the pains of the farmer and the farmer's wife. Much is expected from this plan. It is already in full action in the Department of Eure-et-Loir, where 90 per cent of the farmers have had their farms fitted out with electric appliances, as soon as the line was built.

I mention also a project in close connection with the preceding one. Two large moving picture companies are going to build halls or booths in the villages, so that the country people do not lack the great popular amusement of the movies—with American films!

Out of little causes arise great effects. Let us begin with movies. Later on, we may hit upon more substantial food for the intellect of our discontented rural population.

CHARLES CESTRE

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EDUCATION

The Curriculum of the New School

THE TEST of the newness of the New School is to be found in what goes on in the mind of the child (See The Survey for Dec. 15, 1923, p. 343). If the child is actively engaged in absorbing the world provided by the school, if he is critically intent upon identifying himself with the experiences hinted at in the environment of the school, he is a student in a New School. The meanings of these experiences may be modified or impaired by many factors: by deficiencies in his own constitution; by faults in the construction of the school building; by follies in the school administration; by impertinences on the part of the teachers; by dogmatisms on the part of the community. But, in one sense, the child himself is concerned with none of these: if they will keep out of his way, he will gladly ignore them; but if they insist upon making nuisances of themselves, he will retire within his shell and work upon a world of his own which shall be free from all such disturbances. For there is but one factor in the whole school situation with which the child is irrevocably concerned: The Curriculum. This is the "stuff of the world": out of it he will either nourish a growing, expanding life, or starve to a mental and moral death in the midst of plenty.

This analogy with dietetics is illuminating. Twenty years ago intelligent dietitians assumed that the whole problem of physical nutrition could be adequately dealt with by means of tables of calories, supplemented by hints as to the proper distribution of the calory-bearing foods. An individual needed so many calories each day; but these must be distributed in proper ratio amongst the proteins, fats and carbohydrates, with a bit of mineral salts thrown in for savor.

Mental dietitians, especially in the colleges, held a similar theory: each individual needed so many "hours" of credit, but these hours must be properly distributed over the languages, literatures, mathemathics and natural sciences, with, doubtfully, a bit of "current events" thrown in for savor.

To be sure, under the reign of the doctrine of calories, children developed rickets and other nutritional diseases just as they had done "before calories were invented." And under the reign of the doctrine of "hours of credit" students developed every known form of mental malaise, as well as some forms of revulsion. It is likely that this latter development saved the intellectual lives of many. It is now pretty generally admitted that there is no appreciable connection between "hours of subject matter" and healthy mental development. As Bergson has pointed out, the taking on of subject matters may result, not in normal growth, but in the production of an "intellectual hunchback."

Within these twenty years the "vitamin" has been discovered. Some have thought that our educational processes need intellectual vitamins. The vitamin has been likened to the spark in the gas engine. The gas engine needs fuel, but it needs more: it needs the electric spark to transform inert fuel into compelling energy. The body needs fuel, too, but it needs more: it needs vitamins—something no one has ever seen, something no one quite understands, but something that makes mere calories play their proper part in the economy of the body.

The analogy is supposed to hold in the mental realm: the mind needs something akin to the vitamin, something akin to the electric spark. When the engine is flooded with fuel, it has no power. When the body is over-fed it becomes sluggish. Similarly, school children have been known to lack all interest in securing their proper share in "the spiritual inheritance of the race." A flooded engine might very well trade half its fuel for a supply of electric sparks. A sluggish body might very profitably trade half its highly calorific lean meats for a supply of vitamin-bearing cabbage: less fuel and more "juice" would get both the engine and the body further along the road. The mind might be expected to make progress by a similar procedure: less material and more fire! Does the analogy hold?

A flooded engine might very well trade half its fuel for a supply of electric sparks. The mind might be expected to make progress by a similar procedure: less material and more fire!

THIS is the problem, it would seem, which the New School has set itself to solve. It is not a new problem. It is at least as old as the times of Socrates. Milton dealt with it. He bitterly denounced "that asinine feast of sowthistles and brambles" upon which the children of his day were being starved to death. All the long list of educational reformers have tried for the solution. And in recent years, the mental "vitamin" has been discovered: "interest" is the magic factor, the spark to the inert fuel of the mind, the cabbage that makes corned beef the ideal food. So, for some thirty years, our teachers have been making things "interesting." They have been taking pedagogical training for from two to four years for the purpose of learning how to "make things interesting." Knowledge comes to them, as one superintendent of schools complains, "corked up, as it were, in books, maps, charts, equipment, apparatus, schemes, tricks, devices, pictures, stereopticons, stereoscopes and moving pictures, and it is the teachers' business to uncork things and let them flow."

School children soon learn the patter. "I think I'll drop this subject," says the blasé infant: "I find that, after all, I'm not really interested in it; and one should, don't you think, study only what one is interested in?" Teachers who have set this sort of patter for the children find themselves lost (the phrasing is intentional) in the presence of this argument.

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For the truth is that "interest" as ordinarily applied, does not furnish health-building vitamins for the mind; it furnishes nothing but a sickly sweetness that attracts for a time, but too often leads to loathing.

The problem of finding acceptable and nutritious foods for the child mind is one of the most acutely difficult in human experience. The elements in the problem are exceedingly elusive. Lines of argument tend to become oversubtle and, in this subtlety, they are likely to make such quick turnings as to prove exactly the opposite to that which they seem to be proving. For example, an advocate of the doctrine of "interests" is accustomed to remark: "Children have their own needs: they need certain materials, certain experiences; and it is our duty as teachers to see to it that they get those materials and experiences!"

Rarely, perhaps never, does this speaker realize that he has completely reversed his standpoint between the beginning and the end of that one sentence. At the beginning, he is speaking from the standpoint of the child; at the end he has forgotten the child and is imaging himself as a school executive, and the teachers as arbiters of the intellectual destinies of the children. In this way, "interest" becomes responsible for some of the most absurd as well as some of the most relentless methods of the schools.

NOW the real curriculum in any school, old or new, is the moment by moment experience of the child. The teacher may "teach" geography; but the child may learn nothing more than that the teacher is a tyrant. As for the "study" of geography, only Abstract Omniscience really knows what goes on behind the cover of the big book. But whatever it is, that is the real curriculum. The community, or the school, may adopt its course of study; superintendents and principals may "lay down the law"; the teachers may be fully certificated and authenticated. But Johnny Jones, dawdling over his 'rithmetic, will be seen to smile in that deep, inscrutable way which no arithmetic ever brought to the face of any Jones boy. The harassed teacher, coming on toward examination time and knowing that her own promotion may turn upon whether Johnny Jones has mastered his long division, will flare up and inquire not too gently: "What are you laughing about, John Jones?" And the boy, from the deeps of his astonished ignorance, will be likely to reply: "I was jes' a-thinkin'."

That reply, unconsciously humorous and impertinent, rises, of course, from the boy's experience with the real curriculum of life, and school, too. Johnny Jones is forever, whether in school or out, "jes' a-thinkin'." And the teacher senses an unavoidable conflict between the school's curriculum, that is, her own curriculum, and that world of "thinkin'" out of which her question roused the "thoughtless" boy.

Facing this conflict, facing the problem of the boy's destiny in later life, facing her own professional future, need any one wonder that she replies, still less gently: "Well, it's about time you should quit your thinking and get to work on your lessons!"

For the fact is that in that situation, between the teacher and the boy, two great "streams of experience" have met: one of these, in fragmentary form in the teacher's mind, is the experience of the human race, which has accumulated down the centuries out of the concrete experiences of millions of individuals, and which has gradually organized itself in some great abstractions—The Wisdom of The Ages. What part the teacher has in this great stream, it were probably best not to inquire too closely: at any rate, she is the representative of this stream. But here, also, is the experience of Johnny Jones, accumulating down his years and very real to him: such stuff as his dreams of life and vocation and destiny are made of. These two streams of experience have, in one sense, nothing whatever in common. Yet they must eventually flow into some more or less common channel. What are they to do with each other? What are The Ages going to do with this boy? What is this boy to do with The Wisdom of The Ages?

THIS, then, is the problem which, so it would seem, remains for the New School to solve: What natural connections can be found between the world's stream of experience and the "thinkin'" that goes on in the "mind" of "that Jones boy"? Always, in the school, The Wisdom of The Ages meets the wisdom and the folly of childhood and youth. Each of these needs the other. Each is real, undeniable: the world needs both. Any organization of the school that exaggerates either and minimizes the other is inadequate, impermanent.

It is, and always has been, the defect of all traditional, academic schools, whether humanistic, moralistic or utilitarian, that they have denied the value, and at times the validity, of the experience of "the Jones boy," and have reduced him to the position of being a passive spectator of The Wisdom of The Ages. Need any one wonder that, at his first free moment, he has gone fishing?

It is, and always will be, the defect of all that "soft pedagogy" that talks of "interest," that it exalts the experience of Johnny Jones into a system of inviolable values, before which the wisdom of the ages vanishes into the mists out of which it came: his momentary impulses and passing sensations are over-prized, while the experience of the race is regarded as a prison house from which he must be forever kept free. So, denied all help from the wisdom of the past, he repeats as many of the mistakes of the ages as his own short life makes room for. Need any one wonder, here, again, if sooner or later, he should lose all his "interest" and decide to go fishing with the other "bad boys"?

There is no reason why the New School should repeat either of these obvious types of folly—save its unwillingness or its inability to solve this problem of the meeting of these two streams of experience: the experience of the world and the experience of the Jones boy. The two current methods of dealing with the problem have brought us to an impasse. The New School will really prove its right to exist, not by these current methods, but by coming to an adequate understanding as to what the problem is: the values that are at stake in the situation as a whole, the values that are borne upon each of these streams of experience; and by discovering that more inclusive stream of experience within which all these values may attain a vital integration.

What our New Schools need, just now, is not some temporizing answer to this problem: they need to spend time, energy, and long thinking upon the discovery of the problem itself. When the problem has been fully revealed, the answer will not be far to seek!

J. K. H.

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Undergraduates: By One of Them

"THE time has come," the Walrus said, "to talk of many things." We might include war and peace and nations; the American undergraduate and his conscience.

Let us go back six years in the history of the American institutions of higher learning. The Great War is on and the exemplary college is "doing her bit" with the thoroughness of the American undergraduate in the face of a crisis. Each day the S. A. T. C. drills on the quadrangle, digs trenches on the athletic fields, studies the fundamentals of military tactics, executes practice maneuvers in the surrounding hills, or plains, if there be no hills. For does not America look to the men in her colleges and universities not only for her man power but for brains to defeat the enemy? Does not America look to those men to create within their localities a super-patriotic sentiment which will guarantee the uncompromising and unqualified support of the war? Throughout the United States, college and university students respond to the call.

Then there is the faculty. They will not be excelled by the student body; they will show these youngsters that they have not yet been thrown into the discard, that they too can answer the call of their country. And what do they do? On a military basis they organize a body of their own members and call upon all to join. Each night with brooms as rifles they drill on the floor of the gymnasium that they may be ready to defend their country against blood-thirsty barbarism when the invasion comes. And what of those academic dissenters who decline to play soldier with their more eager colleagues? The process of dealing with the non-conformers is a humane one. They are neither imprisoned nor so much as tarred and feathered. "No, no rough stuff," say the retailers of American culture. They are merely ostracized and plastered with meaningless labels like "anarchist," "red," "conscientious objector," and many others.

The campus is speckled with posters: "Eat Less Wheat," "Buy More Liberty Bonds," "Remember the Lusitania." Lecturers come from far and near to tell us of atrocities, to disseminate a sense of the ethical superiority of the Allies which characterizes this "war to end war," this "war for democracy." Everywhere, in the class room, in the dormitory, on the street, the undergraduate is saying to himself; "It's my duty to give up my education to go into this war so that the world may be made safe for democracy; besides, it's a damn good scrap, and I will be drafted anyway." The officers, the men, the lecturers, the posters, the periodicals, the movies, all are striving for the efficiency of our armies, the expansion of our air fleet, the enlargement of our navy, the training of our infantry for, as our be-Neitzsched leaders tell us, "it is the good war which halloweth every cause."

Then quite suddenly amid the shrieking of whistles and the clanging of bells comes the Armistice. "It is all over," we say. And the S. A. T. C. disappears from the campus, the trenches along the forty-yard line are filled up, brooms are returned to the faculty wives to be put in their customary place behind the kitchen door, and those who were "over there" come back. Of a sudden we discover that we are desperately tired of war, that we are infinitely weary of anything which even suggests that state of social maladjustment. With a sigh we settle back into the upholstered comfort of detached, secluded undergraduate life. "We struck; we won; let us wash our hands clean of the concerns of the world, for it is all over." What is all over? Is anything all over? The War, perhaps; but subsequent events have protested vigorously against the assumption that even that is over. To be sure there is the Treaty of Versailles. But the past experience of the world with treaties could hardly prompt it to place much faith in them as war-silencers. Unfortunately it is not over. In reality it began November 11, 1918.

For the last five years men have entered American institutions of higher education, to become academic or social somnambulists and wander aimlessly through the four years, dabbling in athletics, toying with dramatics, tolerating their courses as necessary evils. They flit here and there, sipping a bit of this, a bit of that, totally oblivious to what is happening outside their own petty sphere.

Since the war the average adolescent has seemed to regard undergraduate life as a sort of garden through which he is privileged to stroll picking indiscriminantly pretty, sweet-smelling flowers which happen to catch his eye, with never a care or thought for what is transpiring without the garden walls. When the poor, deluded soul reaches the end of the path and opens the garden gate he is surprised to find that his knowledge of forget-me-nots or trailing arbutus is practically worthless in dealing with the social, political and economic problems which are forced upon him. What does he do?

Quite naturally he follows the path of least resistance. He hastens to escape from the maelstrom into which he has been tossed by allying himself at once with "a good sound political party" because his father was a member before him and his grandfather before that. Why bother to think for oneself when some one else can do it for one? And yet we look back to Oedipus Rex and Hamlet as the only examples of truly great tragedy.

Perhaps the solution is, if I may carry out the figure, that there are some good, hardy vegetables in the undergraduate garden growing with their roots in the ground, so to speak, which must be gathered to balance the roses and violets. And in this garden if we will only look for it lies the foundation for a proper understanding of the greatest problem with which society has yet been forced to contend, namely, the problem of world peace. That problem presented itself in earnest with the signing of the Armistice in November, 1918. It is a problem the scope of which is far more vast than that of the World War, the interests of which are far more universal, the importance of which is far more vital. Yet what have American undergraduates done for peace? To be sure a year or two ago the student body of a number of colleges and universities signed as a unit a paper the significance of which was that we were not prejudiced against world peace.

In 1916 when a nation called her students to her support we responded to a man; yet now, when the entire world calls us we respond with indifference. Perhaps it is because the problem is too abstract. Perhaps it is because there is none of the glamor of marching men and trumpet blasts associated with it. Or is it because we do not care? This indifference, as we have readily seen, is not confined to undergraduate circles in this country, it permeates the entire nation. But it is on the hands of the youth that the future lies. And youth like King Alfred sits by the fire in hopeless lethargy while the cakes burn.

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Since the Treaty of Versailles more than a score of wars have been fought in Europe, yet, while the Italian-Greece controversy alone should have set us all clamoring for a program of world peace, America has remained characteristically detached, leaving a native Hollander, Edward Bok, to lend the greatest impetus to American prevention of war. With his offer of $100,000 to the person who evolves the most practical plan for American assistance in the establishment of a permanent world peace he has placed it on a monetary basis in order that we citizens of the United States may *comprehend* the urgent need. The idealist in me revolts at this; not at the tactics employed by Mr. Bok but at the fact that it seems necessary to employ such tactics. In fact we must admire Mr. Bok as a clever psychologist.

However, we undergraduates of colleges and universities are credited with being the products of a "higher learning." With this in mind one might think it safe to assume that we will realize the necessity of taking immediate action upon the problem of world peace without the aid of a lucrative stimulus. Such a presupposition, were it made by the unsuspecting, would be totally false. And it is there that the American colleges and universities fall short of those of England and the Continent. What with our professionalized athletics, our professionalized publications, our professionalized dramatics, and our mystic societies and clubs there is little time to devote to the relatively unimportant process of acquiring an education. If you were to ask an undergraduate which of his fellows were preparing for statesmanship he would say somewhat scornfully perhaps, "No one goes in for statesmanship. That is only for old men, for wealthy retired merchants and unscrupulous political bosses." Contrast that reaction with one of an Oxford student, for example.

For the last half century the United States has led the "forces making against war." For a half century we have striven for peace through the medium of treaties and arbitration. And now as we face the climax we shrink from the inevitable; we tremble, fearing to take the final step which entails world association. We are like the eternal woman who instinctively seeks her mate but wavers uncertainly, unable to choose between the realization of her hopes and her "independence." We undergraduates of American educational institutions cannot continue with stereotyped self-complacency directing indifferent and unseeing eyes upon the greatest of world problems. We must extricate ourselves from our slothful detachment and justify our existence by oiling the machinery of world peace.

R. W. Morin

Work—Study—Play

THE "Work-Study-Play" program or "Platoon Plan" of organization of schools makes continuous progress. The third national conference to consider this plan was held in Chicago, late in February, under the auspices of the national bureau of education. Amongst the nationally known educators who support this movement are William Wirt, superintendent of schools, Gary, Indiana, and P. P. Claxton, formerly United States Commissioner of Education, now superintendent of schools, Tulsa, Okla. Committees of the conference are hard at work on such problems as buildings adapted to work-study-play; training of teachers for work-study-play; the use of the auditorium; the education

of public opinion for the acceptance of the work-study-play idea.

The "work-study-play" pictures reproduced herewith were drawn by Jennie Margis, Grade 7A, Froebel School, Gary, Indiana. It would, probably, be altogether too cruel to point out the close resemblance between these "work-study-play" students and those found in "regular" schools.

Mind and Manners

RECENTLY the literature of the land has been expanded and embellished with many exhaustive works on the subject of etiquette. Old texts have been revised and renovated, and extensive research in the direction of the newer truths has netted voluminous results which are usually embodied in $3.50 encyclopedias and manuals, profusely illustrated. It is reported that "What's the matter with this picture?" study classes are destined to supplant the movies as a lure toward salvation in some of the more far-seeing churches.

Nor is this great renaissance of the study of the social amenities confined to the yokels of the hinterland, as acceptance of a prevalent theory would lead one to believe. An inquiry of the book-distributing agency of one of the larger and "smoother" eastern universities had disclosed the fact that there is a substantial and increasing demand for these tomes which unlock the mysteries of handshaking, etc.; and Cornell University, true to the injunction of the founder, has inaugurated a course for those who seek the light in this field. The final examination, it is understood, will consist of a formal reception, with the teachers wielding lorgnettes instead of blue pencils.

In this mad scramble for the ultimate truths of etiquette that is characterizing the institutions of higher learning, that group from which the hypothetical "liberal leadership of tomorrow" is to come is not participating.

The attitude of liberals toward what might be termed the social superfluities (when there is evidence of enough interest to be characterized as an attitude) is one of lofty disdain. One of the articles of faith of those collegiate liberals encountered in the researches of the undersigned investigator might be summed up as follows: "Having penetrated the veneer of social and economic pretense, and having come face to face with stern reality, we hereby solemnly affirm that those gullible mortals who do not see as we see can go to hell."

One interested in making a frequency test of insults (the study is not one to attract inquirers) should attend a meeting of a college liberal club to locate a field that is certain to be productive of unparalleled results. Solemn folk, gathered together to press forward in the march toward truth, they push and shove and stamp with such fury that only the

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sturdiest keep out of the gutter, and those who come to be led usually find themselves trampled upon and disheartened. Barring the phenomenon of instantaneous conversion, which doesn't seem to appear frequently in the field of intellectual liberalism, those wayfarers who happen in for guidance and assistance find themselves fighting for their very existence and grateful when the opportunity is afforded for retreat to the more gentle, if less enlightened, precincts from which they have ventured. For the most part they go, knowing not what they are, but certain that they are not yet ready, renouncing completely the common civilities and courtesies of social intercourse, to become collegiate liberals.

Truth is above and beyond fashion, and only the fool is a slave to good form: So say the college liberals, spitting on the floor the while as an outward evidence of their emancipation. Always, it is assumed, in close contact with the truth, they boisterously pity those less blessed, at the same time complaining that the numbers don't reflect the merit of their cause. In urging one to join their ranks they usually kick him on the shins, knock off his hat, and imply that he is a worm by way of evidencing the spirit of fraternalism which they cherish.

When, as a newspaper reporter making a relatively earnest search for fair facts at an American Federation of Labor convention, the writer was insulted by officials of that body 11 times in 43 minutes (the insults—not the fancy of a super-sensitive imagination—covered a wide range, from that of the president of the body to that of Andrew Furuseth which had the redeeming feature of a certain picturesque quality) he simply sighed and murmured, "This will not be true of the enlightened leadership of the next generation."

Now after several years of association with college liberals he sighs and murmurs, "Long live those gentle and kindly souls of the A. F. of L. who are leading the forces in the battle against social and economic oppression." Always, he hears, we must have more liberal teaching, more real enlightenment. Never yet has he heard an expression of the opinion that a great need of the liberal movement in the universities is better manners. Here a school of social research is founded, there a center for the training of labor leaders; never a course in etiquette for liberals.

"And what has this shallow nonsense about etiquette to do with the stupendous and compelling righteousness of our cause?" demands some ardent liberal, still glowing from a recent exposure to truth. The reply, made with all deference, is that all important social progress is ultimately made through the cooperation of a large number of human minds; and enlistment in any cause is not best stimulated by demonstrating to normally sensitive persons who might cooperate how boorish its espousers are.

Particularly unfortunate seems to be such an attitude in the universities and colleges from which will come the leaders of "tomorrow." There a large number of young men and women, for a fleeting moment, attain to a frame of mind, probably never to be approached again in the later life of most of them, when they are amenable to reason. And at this critical juncture great numbers of them turn into the paths of thought that have been followed in the past because on the liberal highways in the universities any more than one is a disagreeable crowd—disagreeable not because of any lively clash of opinions but because of the existence of the universal human trait of wishing to have a share in the decision when one is adjudged a fool.

Truth is sometimes represented as a flaming torch. The liberals in the colleges and universities avow, and probably rightly, that they are its bearers. If so, it should be urged upon them that they treat those who might be induced to assist them with their labors as one would introduce a child to fire, not by violent immersion, but by kindly and friendly introduction. One plunged in and blistered will more slowly come to appreciate that there are to be obtained from the flame such delightful sensations as warmth and glow. One gradually acquainted with its properties and merits may even some day become a blacksmith.

To this end let the next person who becomes infected by the great American plague organimania found in the universities and colleges of the country another training course for liberals where the study of the renaissance of etiquette will take rank with the study of the renaissance of reason. There is less danger in an overdevelopment of the study of table knife technique than there is in complete neglect. The former can only lead to waste motion; the latter may result in permanent injury.

DEXTER M. KEEZER

The Community in the School

AT the Kansas State Teachers' College, Emporia, under the direction of Professor Herbert G. Lull, an extensive program is going forward looking to the wider use of the community's resources for the purposes of education. Realizing that those resources are being used all the time by the children and by the community for educational purposes, of one sort or another, whether the school is aware of the fact or not, Professor Lull is working out plans for transforming what is incidental and casual into a comprehensive and inclusive program, of which the school can make conscious and intelligent use.

In the February number of Teaching (a journal published by the college) Professor Lull sets forth at length the methods of securing these materials. Teachers are to make "detailed studies of typical institutions of the community." Outlines for making these studies are given. The institutions to be studied include: retail business organizations; social service institutions; financial institutions; city government; county government; and, in addition, the health, workng conditions, personnel and organization of labor. These studies will include visits to actual shops, stores and offices, and to the meetings of civic and welfare organizations. For example, the 8b civics class in the practice school investigated the city steam laundry, studied the organization and processes of the laundry at first hand, and then studied the facts at length both in the civics and science recitation periods.

The main difficulty in the working out of this program lies in the bookishness of the teachers and the lack of any established technic for handling the class in the observational moments. Teachers know how to assign lessons and hear recitations. That is to say, they know how to deal with an organized class and with organized materials. Very few teachers, however, have the slightest idea as to what to do with a disorganized class on a sight-seeing tour, in the presence of the disorganized materials presented by a factory or a store. Here, as elsewhere, the problem seems to be not so much securing materials but rather the development of a method for handling an unacademic situation.

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HEALTH

How They Do It in Kansas City

Some weeks ago a modest four-page leaflet came into the Survey office. It was the annual report for 1922-23 of the Children's Bureau of Kansas City, Mo., with the sub-title "Preventive Health Work for Children from Birth to Six." Its program included: educating workers; a yearly census of all pre-school children; physical examination of all of them once a year; following up those who needed correction to see that they got it; keeping a permanent file of the physical history of each child for the information of parents, the board of health, and the school board; educating parents and the general public in the physical needs and proper care of children from birth to school age; promoting the formation of classes to further child health, and carrying education in the care of children into the individual homes. The program was startling enough, but the record of performance was staggering. This year's census enumerated 16,546 children; 15,319 of them had had a complete and careful physical examination. Almost 5,000 of the 7,000 who needed treatment had received it, and nearly 1,700 were still under observation. This had meant 35,274 visits to 20,576 homes, addresses before 268 organizations, work at 105 public and parochial school centers, the distributing of nearly 50,000 pieces of literature, the keeping of mountainous records, the whole reaching a cost of seventy-eight cents a child which was met by the Charities Bureau. But the most amazing feature of the record was the fact that this thorough-going job for pre-school children of a city of 325,000 was put over by a staff of four paid members, aside from the executive secretary, and 3,186 volunteers! We asked "How?" and Mrs. E. R. Weeks, the chairman, tells the story.

YOU ask how we could do so much with so small a paid staff. Our statistics would mean little if they did not measure careful, complete work. To realize the magnitude of our undertaking you must understand that the physical examinations are given by the best child specialists, who devote much more time to the education of the mothers than usually is given in a clinic. We ourselves give no medicine or treatment, but following up the cases which need attention other than the education of the mother often means as many as three friendly visits, which frequently result in our worker's accompanying the anxious mother to the hospital or clinic.

To get work of this kind done on a volunteer basis calls for considerable education of the workers. We give talks and specially prepared instructions at the office on methods of approach and procedure. "Can't" is not in our vocabulary. We teach our workers that the most unresponsive parents need our help most, and for this reason, are not to be abandoned, after the fashion of some health workers, when three visits have availed nothing. Some method of approach must be found and it is up to the worker to find it. This is often a severe strain on volunteers, but think of the satisfaction of having accomplished a difficult feat without calling in our last resort—the executive secretary—and having done it in a way to retain the friendly feeling of the parents! To handle a case that other agencies might abandon is a large feather in a volunteer's cap.

We have in Kansas City the strongest and best developed system of Parent-Teacher organization in this country with more than 20,000 members. We also have an active branch of the American Association of University Women, which has recognized that its most valuable contribution to this community is promotion of better conditions for children. We have an active Pan-Hellenic organization whose newer members are always seeking some sort of social service outlet for the habit of activity acquired at college. Our few employes have been members of these last two organizations, and came to us through deep interest in child welfare, long before we had money for salaries. Our chairman is the mother of Parent-Teacher work in this part of the country and for years carried on one of the earliest mothers' meetings in the United States. Our executive secretary, loaned to us by the board of education, is a primary teacher of the newer progressive type, with a wide acquaintance among parents of little children, and a genius for personal approach. Our office is within two minutes walk of the shopping district. It is easy to run and do a stunt with cards while one is waiting for an appointment. All these forces exist in every large community.

For many years, the Kansas City Consumers League has devoted itself to securing pure milk. The league and the Food and Dairy Division of the board of health have produced a tremendous amount of spectacular publicity covering not only the value and dangers of milk for babies, but our city's baby death-rate, so that there are few families who have not been aroused to some definite thought about what is good for babies, and to realize that babies are entitled to the care of the community. Possibly no other city in the country has had more education on milk, and that of the most appealing kind.

Do not these considerations, when added to the fact that the close of the war was releasing from war activities thousands of women still filled with the fervor of public service, indicate that the soil was ready—the instruments at hand—when, in 1918, we began our yearly complete physical examinations of pre-school children?

We started with a rather spectacular census of pre-school children, with teas at which reports were made. If any district had no Parent-Teacher Association, some other association took it over. Immediately, the whole Parent-Teacher organization realized that this preventive health work among pre-school children was peculiarly their own. As a census of these children of the "neglected age" was a new thing, and as it was made at the request of the Federal Children's Bureau, it attracted attention, made the field ready, and created the nucleus of our big volunteer force.

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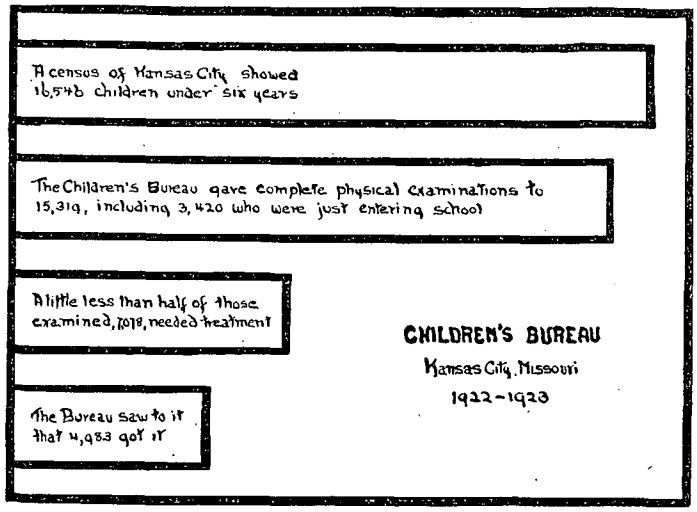
It seemed to us worth while to develop a big volunteer service, because we needed a great body of people immediately to do our work, and to start the furore for keeping little folks well, not in poorer sections alone, but in every part of the city. This small army of volunteers furnished the basis for the needed example to all classes.


A census of Kansas City showed 16,548 children under six years
The Children's Bureau gave complete physical examinations to 15,319, including 3,420 who were just entering school
A little less than half of those examined, 7018, needed treatment
The Bureau saw to it that 4,983 got it
CHILDREN'S BUREAU
Kansas City, Missouri
1922-1923

It seemed worth while to work by school districts, because there were Parent-Teacher Associations in sixty-three, whose community pride could be enlisted to help make their districts the healthiest in the city. This plan also enlisted the cooperation of the school board, which gave permission for the use of the schoolhouses as our examination centers, and created a confidence in our work, because our people have a deep respect for the school board. In using the American Association of University Women, we enlisted another set of women with influence among a different group, more difficult to interest because they felt at first that their children did not need our work. We needed their intelligent interest to furnish a certain class of workers, and also to "point our moral and adorn our tale" by bringing their own children to the examinations. The Pan-Hellenics draw to us the very young women, with enthusiasm unabated, interested in the children, and realizing that our work deals with problems soon to be their own.

The American Association of University Women appointed a chairman of volunteers for its group, whose duty it is to telephone regularly to members to obtain workers for stated seasons and hours, and for emergency service when needed. We keep a card index of workers, and each volunteer records her hours of work on her own card. This enables us to keep an accurate accounting of work furnished by each organization, and thus use the stimulus that comes from competition. The same thing is done by the Pan-Hellenic. On a set day, that chairman calls all her volunteers and keeps track of their activities. As all of our employes are members of sororities, they enlist these bodies in service of various kinds. Alumnae and alumni of high schools and Catholic academies are interested, and, spurred on by a friendly competition in achievement, arrange groups of volunteers. With the approval of the Catholic bishop, the Amberg group furnishes workers for the 29 parochial school districts with centers in these schools. The professor of sociology in the Kansas City Junior College recognizes the educative value for citizenship which our work offers, and every year, at a certain season, all his classes devote a definite period to doing parts of our work. We assign them to our different classes of districts that they may learn the conditions under which our community lives and the kinds of responses people make to our ideas.

Certain large organizations like to do all of a specific thing, and we give them all the work in one district. They are expected to secure their own volunteers; we furnish the expert direction. Two P. T. A. have done 100 per cent work in their districts; i. e., numbered *all* the little folks, induced the parents to bring them *all* in to the examination, followed *every* case that needed attention to see whether it had been given or not, and helped to get the needed attention in *every* case.

Volunteers especially like to know that they have helped to do a good piece of work, and *we* like to say, that "with only four paid employes, we were able to examine 15,319 little folks. We could not have done this without the 3,186 volunteers doing excellent work." We like to make their service seem concretely helpful by telling them at our "pep" meetings that the school authorities say we are getting children into school in 50 per cent better condition. We love to say that their service is so unique that people from other states, with a different experience in volunteers, will not believe us when we tell what Kansas City, Missouri, folk do in the way of service.

Perhaps one feature of our work, in addition to its being for babies, better explains our fortunate experience, and that is the great variety of service available for volunteers, so that each expert or beginner may find almost anything to which she is adapted, from driving an auto or filling out cards to giving instructions in food composition or the meaning of underweight. Our office work can be done wholesale by some one willing to give weeks to it, or an hour at a time.

A most valuable piece of new volunteer work is being done this year by a picked group of college women who visit mothers of newborn babies, obtaining the addresses weekly from the municipal record of vital statistics. The response from the mothers is already so satisfactory that we will have no difficulty in securing volunteers.

There is one kind of service that is very useful to us, not quite volunteer, yet without it, I doubt if we could succeed in our job. That is the response we get from people whose children do not really need our work, but who bring them to our examination centers for the sake of the example—in order that others may bring theirs. Many of our child specialists bring their babies every year that we may be able to quiet unnecessary apprehensions by saying, "Dr. . . . brings his."

MARY H. WEEKS

What Is a Public Health Nurse?

WITH the start of this year the qualifications for a public health nurse, appointed by public authorities in New York state, require that the applicant be at least twenty-one years old at the time of her appointment, and a registered nurse. With another year will come the added provision that she shall have completed a course in public health nursing approved by the Public Health Council, though the council reserves the right to waive this or the earlier provisions upon application by the appointing powers or by the nurse.

California has recently evolved a detailed set of pre-

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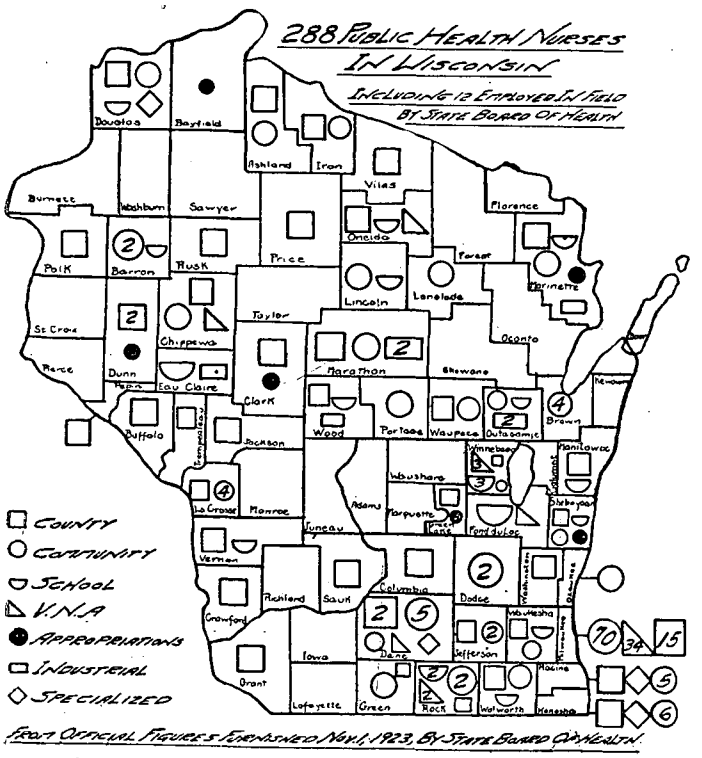
requisites for examination for certification as a public health nurse. The applicant must be a registered nurse under the laws of California. She must have completed a course in public health nursing of from four to eight months in a school approved by the California State Board of Health, or at least a semester of postgraduate work in social service, theory and practice, or must present evidence of having engaged for at least two years in general public health nursing in connection with a public health organization approved by the board. On the examination a credit of 5 per cent is to be given to applicants who have completed a four months' course in public health nursing, and of 10 per cent, to applicants who have finished an eight months' course.

From Massachusetts, via the Commonhealth, the publication of the State Board of Health, comes a study by Madeleine Wayne, R.N., of the nurses actually at work in that field. In 1923 the "full-time nurses" of Massachusetts numbered more than 1,162, as compared with the 591 listed in 1919. They are classified as follows:

	1923	1919
I. School:		
1. Full-time	218	115
2. School combined with other local nursing	101	—
	319	115
(Localities employing school nurse part-time, 112.)		
II. Industrial	245+	184
III. Generalized	240	—
IV. Bedside	125	124
V. Instructive only	192	168
VI. Combined	41	—
	1,162+	591

In addition to these, there are about 166 part-time employments, which would amount to the whole time of approximately 40 additional public health workers.



And fifteen years ago there was not a single public health nurse in Wisconsin. The first demonstrations of their value were developed by the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association, from whose organ, the Crusader, this map is taken.

The 1920 Committee for the Study of Nursing Education estimated that an ordinary community should have one public health nurse to each 1,500-2,000 of population. In 1919 the ratio in Massachusetts was one to 6,500. The figure for 1923—one to 3,300—while still inadequate, nevertheless shows a measure of progress. The extent to which public health nursing still is private, at least to the extent of the nurse's salary, is indicated in another table:

	By Municipality.	By Lay Organization.	By Combination of Public and Private.
Full-time	396	728	38
Part-time	63	89	14

A great many of the nurses counted in this study have had no specialized public health training, aside from their regular hospital experience, but have learned "on the job." The chief needs of public health nursing in Massachusetts, according to Miss Wayne, are a system of study courses, educational leaflets, etc., which would enable the nurses to fill out gaps in their theoretical training which their professional duties may not have met, and some method of enabling communities to meet the expenses of public health nursing service when they are fully convinced of its value but unable to obtain the funds necessary to realize it.

It Cured the King of Benares

MANY years ago, before the time of Buddha, Rama, king of Benares, became afflicted with leprosy. His court physicians could do nothing for him and he abdicated his throne to go into the forest to die. But instead of dying, he was marvellously restored to strength and health by eating the fruits and leaves of the kalaw tree. In the jungles he found a royal princess, daughter of a king of northern India, who had been cast out by her family because she too was suffering from the dreadful disease. He taught her to cure herself in the same way, and later took her as his wife, and they and their thirty-two sons founded a city on the spot where the kalaw trees grew.

And so for centuries bazaars from India to Burma and Siam have sold seeds of the kalaw tree, known to Europe as chaulmoogra, for leprosy and other skin disorders. Throughout the nineteenth century these chaulmoogra seeds and their oil were described by botanists and pharmacists familiar with the Orient. Toward the end of the century the oil was introduced into France, and as interest in its use awakened, the trees from which it was obtained were identified. Since then it has been found that several trees or shrubs yield fruit from which chaulmoogric or related hydnocarpic acid, similarly efficacious in leprosy, can be obtained.

In 1918 Dr. A. L. Dean, professor of chemistry and president of the University of Hawaii, basing his researches upon those of Dr. Frederick B. Power and his collaborators in London who first isolated and described chaulmoogric acids, succeeded in obtaining the ethyl esters of the oil, which are a specific for leprosy. Treatment with them was started in the Kalihi leprosy hospital near Honolulu, and in the next three years nearly one hundred and fifty patients were paroled from the hospital as no longer a menace to public health. Apparently they were really cured.

With this success came the obligation to explore this whole

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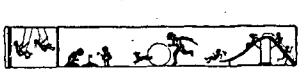
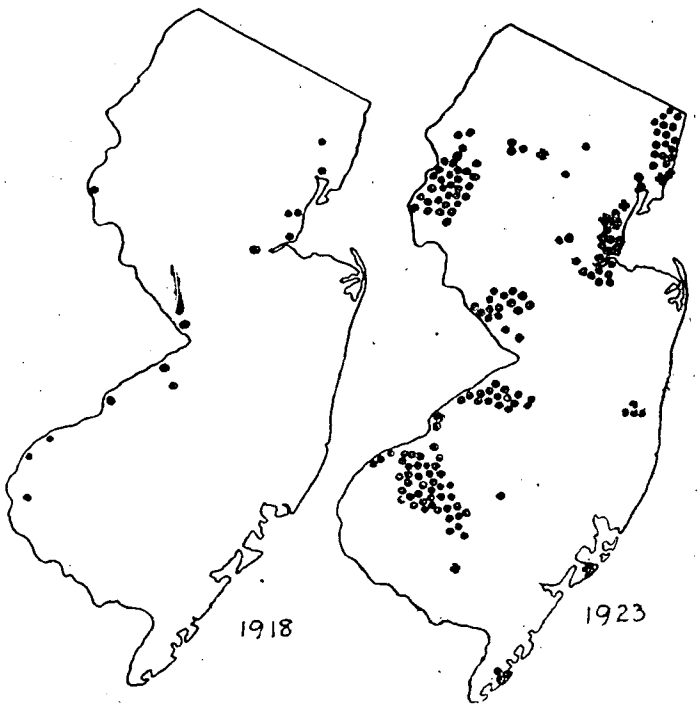
field, to identify the species from which the acids could be obtained, to locate them, and to work out some plan to make the treatment available where it was needed. In 1919 Joseph F. Rock, explorer for the United States Department of Agriculture, found fruits on a cultivated chaulmoogra tree in Bangkok and sent them to Honolulu where the seeds were germinated and planted. A year later he again went to Siam, this time with the sole mission of finding the tree in its native haunts. One long expedition through the jungles led not to the true chaulmoogra (*Taraktogenos kurzii*), but to the other species which are also useful. The natives knew their properties, and the larger trees had strings tied about their trunks to identify them to parties of children or young men who were sent into the forests to search for the fruits and to cut off the bark, which is used to make a kind of tea as an internal remedy.

In the winter of that same year, however, the explorer followed successfully another clue—this time to the upper Chindwin district of Burma—along the Irawaddy river nearly to Mandalay, then by train to Monywa on the Chindwin river, and up the river for four days in a stern wheeler, and thence by foot up the streambeds, dry in winter, through dense, forbidding forests, guided by the tajee or headmen of the jungle villages. About five miles from Kyokta, a lonely jungle village of thirty houses, they found the trees, straight, with smooth pale yellowish-brown bark, and round velvety fruits, fawn-colored and the size of a large orange. The fruits ripen during the rainy seasons and drop to the ground, assisted by the monkeys who are exceedingly fond of them, as are bears and wild pigs, who range the forests at this season searching them. After the rains have passed and the animals have had their fill, the natives go out in parties of twenty or thirty to gather what seeds have not been eaten by the beasts or washed away down the streambeds along which the trees grow. They get possibly half the yield. Even then, in the cold season, the work is exceedingly dangerous because of tigers and wild elephants. Some seeds remained in the regions which Mr. Rock and his party explored, and these were carefully packed and sent to Honolulu, Singapore, the Philippines, and Washington.

The seeds sent back by the party grew well, and several thousand young chaulmoogra trees are now being raised in tropical nurseries. As they grow old enough to withstand shipment, they will be given away to countries where leprosy exists, to make possible the production of adequate quantities of the oil, estimated at a million liters a year. The care of lepers is an acute problem even in the United States, which has probably more than 1,000 awaiting segregation beyond the 200 who will be cared for in buildings planned but not yet under construction. These trees may eventually make possible the eradication of a disease which since the times of the Bible, and probably for ages before, has meant isolation and creeping, loathsome death.



AS THE SCHICK TEST and toxin-antitoxin immunization against diphtheria are becoming established public health procedure (the health officer of Watervliet, N. Y., Dr. W. B. D. Van Auken announces, for example, that the school board has voted the routine immunization of all children entering the public schools), laboratory investigations are pointing the way to the conquest of other enemies of childhood. In a recent



Public Health News, Feb. 1924

In 1918 the germ of child hygiene had infected 12 New Jersey towns. In 1923 the infection had spread to 150 communities with 10 more border-line cases. The 150 communities carrying on the Continuous Child-Hygiene Program are marked with a dot. The ten cities carrying on the pre-school activities only are indicated by a cross. For an account of the Continuous Child Hygiene Program in New Jersey, see The Survey, February 15, 1924, "The Continuous Child."

report to the American Medical Association, Drs. George F. Dick and Gladys H. Dick describe researches at the John McCormick Institute for Infectious Diseases at Chicago which promise to provide a test to determine human susceptibility to scarlet fever, as the Schick test shows susceptibility to diphtheria, and, better still, seem to indicate the possibility of an active immunizing agent. Their experiments show that probably less than half the population is susceptible. The recently tested use of a prophylactic serum from convalescent cases of measles (See The Survey, February 15, 1924) has been so convincing as to warrant its adoption by the board of health of New York City, which provides the serum on request for children under three years of age exposed to the disease not more than seven days previously. Through the courtesy of the A. I. C. P. the department is about to adopt another recent scientific discovery in administering an egg yolk mixture, (first reported by Dr. Alfred Hess in the Journal of the American Medical Association, July 7, 1923), at two of the baby health centers, to combat rickets in babies between three and nine months, who frequently do not tolerate cod liver oil.

BUILDING on the extraordinary interest shown last summer in a questionnaire mailed to physicians and other health workers to determine their desire for public health institutes, the federal Public Health Service announces that four public health summer schools will be conducted this year at Columbia University, New York City (July 7-August 15), the University of Iowa, Iowa City (June 9-July 18), the University of California, Berkeley (June 23-August 2) and the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor (June 23-August 2). The courses at each center cover a wide range of subjects, emphasizing the newer fields of medicine and their social applications; laboratories will be available, and clinical material will be used for demonstration. The aim of the summer schools, as defined by the Public Health Service is, to provide up-to-date intensive training for all per-

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sons engaged in any kind of public health work; to furnish up-to-date instruction which will enable practicing physicians to deal effectively with the more important causes of mortality and disability, especially cases referred by industrial clinics, school clinics, public health nurses, and similar agencies; and to bring together practicing physicians, health officers, and other sanitarians and thus to establish a more cooperative relationship in the work of disease prevention.

WHITE PLAINS is a city of about 21,000, in New York. Twelve years ago 130 of each 1000 babies born there died before their first birthday. In 1923, the rate was only 38, less than half of that of the state as a whole, and less than a third that of 1911. The year 1911 is chosen as the start of the story told by Dr. Edwin G. Ramsdell, the present health officer, since that year saw the first baby welfare station in White Plains, which was held in a public school during the summer months. The nurse assigned to it became so interested that she voluntarily assumed the task of following up during the rest of the year the babies registered at the clinic during the summer. Three years later, in 1914, a permanent all-year baby welfare clinic was established, and there was an immediate drop of about 36 per cent in the infant death-rate, which already had declined appreciably during the earlier efforts. Each year the scope of the welfare station has been widened, and recently a prenatal clinic was added. Dr. Ramsdell concludes his report to the state commissioner of health with the guarded statement that "These figures would appear to indicate that this work of prevention, which has been inspired and fostered by the state department of health, has been worth while."

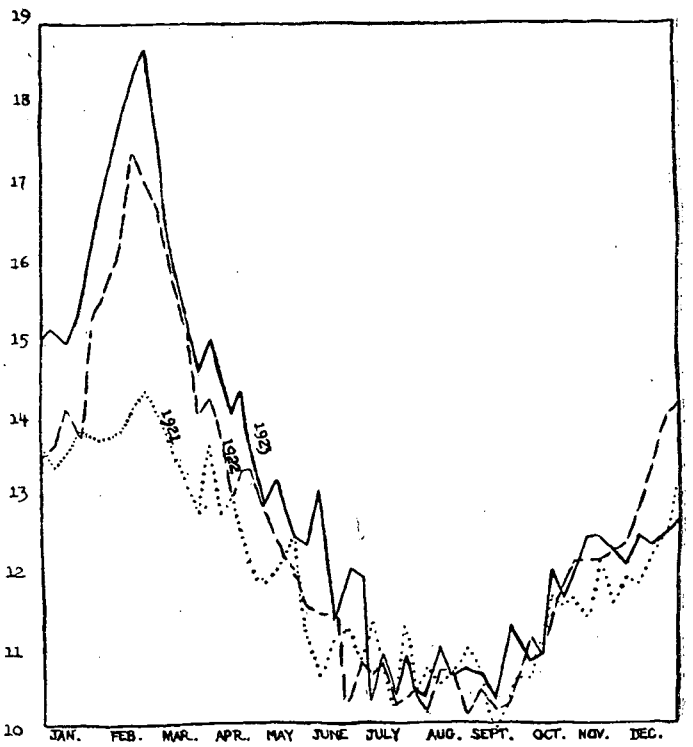
WHAT THE LAYMAN should know and can understand about the new and growing crusade for mental health has been assembled in A Mental Health Primer, published by the Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene, which recently reached its second printing. The Primer contains a series of articles by acknowledged authorities defining some of the more serious mental ailments as well as those milder forms which come within common every-day experience, and stating some of the relations of the mental health movement to problems of delinquency, social and economic maladjustment, and childhood. It may be obtained from the offices of the society, 5 Joy Street, Boston, for twenty-five cents.

NEW YORK is to make a pioneer attempt to chart current illness through a plan worked out by the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine and the United Hospital Fund. Certain hospitals will furnish the important medical facts relating to their patients, without disclosing the identity of the patients. The resulting information, probably the first general record of morbidity ever to be assembled on a large scale, should cast much light on hospital problems, and give a basis of fact for preventive health work in many of the problems of illness which it frames.

TEN THOUSAND copies of the attractive folder published by the Philadelphia Child Health Society on Food, Teeth and Health have been rapidly exhausted, and a second edition has been printed. The folder gives the essential facts on diet and dentition during pregnancy, infancy, childhood, and adolescence, in commendably simple and interesting form.

GUILFORD COUNTY, North Carolina, has just finished a beautiful county tuberculosis hospital, paid for out of a bond issue of $100,000. Clinics have been established at several places in the county to work in cooperation with it. The County Medical Society has promised to report to it every case of tuberculosis which comes under its observation. Only eight years ago there was practically no provision within the county for tuberculosis. The first step which finally resulted in the building of the sanatorium was a check of $45, of seal sale money, given to a volunteer charity organization for the relief of a young girl with tuberculosis. The girl was past the chance for recovery, but her fate aroused the interest of the charity workers. Gradually their work took on the character of tuberculosis work almost exclusively. They needed a sanatorium, and in 1920 they used part of the seal sale money to purchase a cottage, borrowing the rest from the bank. The next year they managed to guide the bond issue through the election, but in the meantime the cottage sanatorium was at work. In the time which elapsed between its purchase and the opening of the permanent institution, it has sent back fifteen tuberculosis patients to their homes and work, cured.

WISCONSIN has found a new way to break the professional isolation which is one of the liabilities of country doctors. A package library has been established through the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin, in cooperation with the state medical society, and any physician in the state can obtain a "package" for two weeks by asking for it. The subjects already represented by packages include: cancer, diphtheria, vaccination, periodical physical examination, insulin, fractures of the long bones, treatment of infection and sensitizational diseases with foreign proteins, and control of communicable diseases.



Year by year the swing of the death-rate is surprisingly the same. This graph, prepared by the Department of Commerce, summarizes for 1921, 1922, and 1923, the weekly indices of a group of large cities with an aggregate population close to 30,000,000.

AMONG THE NEWEST of the outspoken advocates of the periodic health examinations is the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, which urges in a letter to the Board of Education that the idea be inculcated in the population in general, and in particular in the teachers, whose leadership could set a constructive example for parents and pupils alike.

THROUGH THE COOPERATION of the New York State Motion Picture Owners Association, the New York State Commissioner of Health has arranged with many theaters to have slides with health messages run in on the program. One slide will be shown at each performance, the text to be changed each week.

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Medical Factors in Family Case Work

THE causal inter-relationship between disease and poverty has long become an accepted maxim of social theory and practice, established theoretically by many writers, and statistically by investigators in many countries. If this relationship remains the subject of inquiry and statistical investigation, it is not so much for the purpose of establishing a truism, as to measure the extent of the problem, to demonstrate its importance to the community by means of cumulative evidence and to indicate the best methods of breaking the "vicious circle."

Sickness as a Cause of Poverty

Statistical investigations, to measure the various "causes" or "factors" of poverty, usually apply the so-called case counting method. Though excellent scientific objections can be brought against it, the method presents a useful instrument of analysis, provided its limitations are carefully noted. In our work in the Jewish Welfare Society, we find it useful to classify our cases according to *one* problem. We do not, however, assign to this problem the philosophic importance of a principle cause or factor. Our cases are classified according to the "*main* problem presented." This, of course, is a matter of judgment; but after all, so are many statistical categories in the field of social investigation.

The society handles at any one time over 1,000 families. Throughout one year, about 1,000 new cases are opened and an equal number of cases closed. There is, therefore, a considerable change in the population under care. The great similarity in distribution of cases according to the main problem presented, in the beginning and at the end of the year, is almost a conclusive evidence that the combined judgment of several workers as to all the cases under care does reflect the true situation to a very large extent.

Admitting this, what does the table below show in regard to the importance of health problems in the work of a case agency? Some 17 per cent of cases under care on May 1, 1923, were due to temporary illness, 12 per cent to tuberculosis, nearly 6 per cent to other chronic diseases, and nearly 10 per cent to mental and nervous diseases, making a total of 45 per cent due to disturbances in physical or mental health. And yet, even this percentage is an under-estimate as will be readily seen. The number of cases on hand at any one particular time consists largely of two groups, differing substantially from each other; the cases of short duration, which come for temporary aid, and the more or less permanent cases of long duration, such as the cases of widows with dependent children or deserted women. A similar analysis of the new cases "opened" during one year is, therefore, perhaps a better indication of causes of distress. This is shown in the second column of the table. The table of the same four groups gives about the same percentage of 43, but temporary illness evidently plays a much larger proportion of the new cases than of the static population, namely, 24 per cent against 17 per cent.

As every experienced social worker undoubtedly knows, the remaining 55 per cent of cases are not altogether free of health problems. To estimate the importance of the health problem as a whole, a somewhat different method of approach becomes necessary. The method used by the Jewish Welfare Society is to indicate each problem presented by all active cases. If a case is of long duration, the problem or problems will, therefore, be checked up each month, so long as the case remains under care. Some of the problems will be continuous as, for instance, the problem of widowhood; others may appear and disappear as, for instance, the problem of temporary illness. It would, therefore, be misleading to add the problems for several successive months, because of the large number of duplications, but instead of that, averaging the number of various problems presented is a legitimate method. In the table on the opposite page, the average number of monthly various problems presented per 100 cases under active care, is shown for the three fiscal years ending May 1, 1923, and for the six months May to October 1923.

The justification of this somewhat abstruse statistical presentation is found in the picture which we may reconstruct from the figures, not only of the conditions a case

FAMILIES UNDER CARE IN 1922-23
CLASSIFIED UNDER MAIN PROBLEM PRESENTED

MAIN PROBLEM	UNDER CARE MAY 1922	OPENED IN 1922-23	TOTAL	CLOSED IN 1922-23	UNDER CARE ON MAY 1, 1923
Illness Temporary	181	247	428	255	173
Tuberculosis	132	74	206	85	121
Other Chronic Disease	46	51	97	39	58
Insanity and Nervous Disorders	94	71	165	68	97
Death and Widowhood	194	110	304	132	172
Old Age	29	45	74	43	31
Unemployment	91	121	212	162	50
Behavior Problem	30	15	45	22	23
Juvenile Delinquency	32	46	78	39	39
Desertion	133	98	231	108	123
Domestic Difficulties	103	98	201	98	103
Insufficient Income	33	36	69	40	29
Miscellaneous	12	15	27	15	12
Total	1110	1027	2137	1106	1031

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agency is called upon to deal with, but also the methods used in dealing with them.

(1) There has been a remarkable increase in the average number of problems presented, which has risen from 177 per 100 cases under treatment in 1920-21 to nearly 245 during the last six months. This cannot mean that the situations present have become so much more complex during the short period of three years. It can mean only one thing, that the existing situations have been much better recognized, better diagnoses have been made.

AVERAGE MONTHLY NUMBER OF PROBLEMS PRESENTED AND NUMBER PER 100 RECEIVING TREATMENT

PROBLEMS	1920-21		1921-22		1922-23		1923-24 (6 MO..)	
	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PROB. PER MONTH	PER 100 CASES REC. TREAT.	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PROB. PER MONTH	PER 100 CASES REC. TREAT.	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PROB. PER MONTH	PER 100 CASES REC. TREAT.	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PROB. PER MONTH	PER 100 CASES REC. TREAT.
Temporary Illness	152	26.6	304	42.9	483	51.0	465	55.8
Tuberculosis	113	19.7	148	20.9	225	23.7	194	23.2
Other Chronic Illness	59	10.3	103	14.5	201	21.2	207	24.8
Mental & Nerv. Disorders	45	7.8	97	13.7	198	20.9	208	24.9
Death and Widowhood	112	19.6	154	21.7	162	17.1	201	24.1
Old Age	27	4.7	37	5.2	46	4.8	37	4.4
Un- and Under-Employment	83	14.5	134	18.9	137	14.4	53	6.3
Behavior Problems	14	2.4	26	3.7	41	4.3	36	4.3
Juvenile Problems	16	2.8	44	6.2	103	10.8	100	12.0
Desertion & Non-Support	105	18.3	116	16.3	164	17.3	132	15.8
Domestic Difficulties	24	4.2	56	7.9	104	10.9	153	18.3
Insufficient Income	239	41.8	92	13.0	86	9.0	110	13.2
Other Financial Problems	5	.8	9	1.2	12	1.2	13	1.5
Bad Housing	11	1.9	34	4.8	104	10.9	64	7.6
Bad Housekeeping	6	1.0	28	3.9	78	8.2	65	7.8
Total	1011	176.4	1383	194.8	2144	225.7	2038	244.0
Average Number of Cases Per Month Receiving Treatment	571		707		946		833	

(2) Not only has the total number of problems diagnosed increased very rapidly, but the increase has been noticeable in most problems. In fact, only in one group has there been a very substantial reduction, namely, in the problem designated rather loosely as "insufficient income." The rapid decrease in the number of diagnoses of "insufficient income" bears eloquent evidence of a more careful study of the specific situations presented.

(3) Most significant is the fact that the increase of diagnoses was largest in connection with situations arising out of bad health. Taking the first four groups together, namely, temporary illness, tuberculosis, chronic illness, and mental and nervous disorders, the total number of problems under these four groups per 100 cases was 65 in 1920-21, 92 in 1921-22, 117 in 1922-23, and 129 during the last six months. In other words, while there was a shifting in the various other problems and a slight increase in most, the increase in medical diagnoses almost equalled the entire increase in the number of all problems diagnosed.

Of course, it cannot be assumed for a moment that there has been any real deterioration in the health conditions of this section of the population of Philadelphia.

This remarkable improvement in recognition of health problems in family case work, which is as noticeable in temporary illness as in tuberculosis or other chronic diseases, and is particularly striking in connection with mental and nervous disorders, is largely due to the establishment of the Community Health Center. The type of examination which has been tried in New York as an experiment (See The Survey, Dec. 15, 1923) by the Committee on Dispensary Development of New York, the United Hebrew Charities and the A. I. C. P., has become almost a routine procedure with our organization. In some cases, as, for instance, when necessity for placement of children arises, such routine physical examinations are *required,* as no child is placed without being given both a physical and mental examination. Again, an examination may be required in order to ascertain whether an applicant or any member of the family is able to go to work. In other cases, the examination is a matter of persuasion, rather than compulsion. The ideal, to which both the Community Health Center and the Jewish Welfare Society are aspiring, is a regular physical examination of every member of every family with which the Jewish Welfare Society comes in contact. Those families, who remain in contact with the organization over a long period, are encouraged to come to the center for re-examination every six months or at least every year.

Health Conditions Ascertained through Examinations

What are the health conditions as disclosed by the physical examinations of that part of the population served by the Jewish Welfare Society? Only about one-half of the work of the Community Health Center comes from this family case agency. The Juvenile Aid Society, a child placing agency, and the Orphans' Guardian Society, which is a special agency for care of widows with dependent children, furnish some 40 per cent of the material, and the additional 10 per cent come from various minor agencies. However, the social position of the other half of the clientele of the Community Health Center probably does not differ very much from that of the Jewish Welfare Society, and such statistical data as is available may be taken as sufficiently characteristic.

The total number of examinations made at the Community Health Center rose from 3268 for the fiscal year May 1921-22 to 4091 for the fiscal year 1922-23. While in the New York investigation adults constitute over 42 per cent of the persons examined, the proportion for the Community Health Center was very much smaller.

PERSONS EXAMINED AT THE COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTER

Group.	1921-22.		1922-23.	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Children	2615	80	3150	77
Adults	653	20	941	23
	3268	100	4091	100

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The smaller proportion of adults in the examinations of the Community Health Center is probably more than indicative of what can be accomplished in a routine way, as against a specially directed investigation such as has been made in New York. Not only is the normal man employed and, therefore, opposed to the "waste of time" of a physical examination, but even the average housewife does not take kindly to it unless driven by some symptom, in which case she is more likely to apply to a hospital or dispensary. At the same time the increase in the percentage of adults from 20 to 23 per cent is encouraging.

For 4,034 examinations made, the total number of diagnoses were 10,638 or over 2½ diagnoses per examination. Only 544 persons examined were found to be "normal" in the sense that no defects were diagnosed. This constitutes 13.5 per cent. Small as this percentage may appear, it is nevertheless very much larger than the corresponding percentage in the case of the New York investigation, namely, 5.4 per cent. Perhaps one explanation may be found in the much smaller proportion of adults in the Philadelphia group. In fact, since children constitute 77 per cent of the total number of examinations, and children from 3 to 16, 72½ per cent, the results of the examinations may be taken as referring particularly to the school population at large. The 4,034 persons examined are distributed according to the number of diagnoses per case as follows:

PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS MADE AT THE COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTER MAY 1, 1922-MAY 1, 1923, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE DIAGNOSES PER EXAMINATION.

Normal (no diagnosis)	544	13.5%
One Diagnosis	744	18.4
Two Diagnoses	783	19.4
Three "	741	18.4
Four "	538	13.3
Five "	368	9.1
Six "	189	4.7
Seven "	70	1.7
Eight "	35	.9
Nine "	13	.3
Ten "	7	.2
Eleven "	2	.1
	4034	100%

Of course, not all the diagnoses are of equal significance, either from an economic or purely medical point of view, and as was to be expected, the largest number of diagnoses are found in connection with comparatively unimportant physical conditions. But one is somewhat at a difficulty to determine which group of diagnoses are of greater importance in the final analysis—the small number of serious diagnoses which may mean a permanent impairment, or even danger to life, or the large numbers of minor medical conditions which, taken together, indicate a serious undermining of public health.

Let us take the ten most common diagnoses found in a year's experience in the Community Health Center.

Diseases of Teeth	1478	or	37	per	100 examinations
" " Tonsils	908	"	23	"	" "
Adenitis	905	"	23	"	" "
Malnutrition	808	"	20	"	" "
Lardosis	765	"	19	"	" "
Visual Disturbances	627	"	16	"	" "
Faulty Breathing and Nasal Obstructions	616	"	15	"	" "
Tuberculosis	508	"	13	"	" "
Pediculosis	386	"	10	"	" "

If it were possible to eliminate the examinations of adults, the percentage would all be considerably higher, perhaps by one-third higher. Together, these ten diseases alone make a total of 7,370 or nearly 2 per examination.

Of course, all these conditions are ordinary or every-day occurrences. They are easily recognized and almost all of them are easily corrected. But nevertheless, the picture of health conditions in the homes we are dealing with, as disclosed by this table, is very depressing. Perhaps there are only a few children unfortunate enough to have almost all of these diagnoses together. But undoubtedly in a good many cases many of these conditions are found concurrently. The child with bad teeth, diseased tonsils and a spinal curvature, a child anaemic, with swollen glands and nasal obstruction, a child infected with tuberculosis, is primarily a child whose health is being undermined by systematic under-feeding, poor housing, lack of cleanliness, and unwise living. It is a grave situation, indeed, when from 20 to 30 per cent of the children in our families are in this condition. And the situation would appear even graver if a similar condition were found not only in the families known to relief agencies, but in the general run of city population. Careful statistics of medical school inspections, if such inspections were done as they ought to be, might disclose a similar condition. In so far as these data refer to children, long before they enter on productive activity, we are evidently dealing here more with results of poverty than with its causes. Or to put it in a different way, we are probably dealing with results of past destitution and causes of future destitution, thus illustrating the true character of the "vicious circle" drawn by Dr. Jamieson B. Hurry. (Poverty and Its Vicious Circle, London, 1917.)

Interesting as the above figures may be in the study of social conditions, it is not at all from an academic point of view that the work of the Community Health Center must be judged. The result of these examinations is shown

AVERAGE MONTHLY NUMBER OF FAMILIES RECEIVING MEDICAL SERVICE

MEDICAL SERVICES	1920-21 AV-ERAGE	1920-21 PER 100 FAMILIES UNDER CARE	1921-22 AV-ERAGE	1921-22 PER 100 FAMILIES UNDER CARE	1922-23 AV-ERAGE	1922-23 PER 100 FAMILIES UNDER CARE	1923-24 (6 mos) AV-ERAGE	1923-24 (6 mos) PER. 100. FAMILIES UNDER CARE
Physical Examinations	73	12.8	90	12.7	125	13.2	106	12.7
Ref. To Out-Patient Clinics	82	14.5	186	26.3	366	38.7	301	36.1
Bedside Aid Provided	11	1.9	22	3.1	51	5.4	53	6.3
Institutional Care	42	7.3	75	10.6	79	8.3	119	14.3
Medical Appliances	3	.5	4	.6	9	1.0	10	1.2
Special Diets	14	2.4	38	5.4	54	5.7	44	5.3
Mental Examinations	12	2.1	20	2.8	23	2.4	15	1.8
Mental Treatment	2	.3	5	.7	4	.4	3	.4
Ref. to Mental Institutions	3	.5	2	.3	3	.3	3	.4
	242	42.3	442	62.5	714	75.4	654	78.5

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The Community Health Center

IN a survey made for the Philadelphia Federation of Jewish Charities in 1920, Dr. Michael Davis pointed out that a very large percentage of dependency was due to illness. There were numerous agencies to cure illness, but little had been done to build up and guard health, the strongest weapon in the fight against poverty. The Community Health Center was established in February, 1921, to meet this need of the Jewish dependents.

The center acts as a health clearing house for the case-working agencies of the Federation of Jewish Charities, twelve in all. It has an independent board of directors and staff, and formulates its own policies. Its budget is met by the federation. The work of the center falls into two broad divisions—the examination of children to be placed in foster homes, private or institutional, and the examination of families sent by the family welfare agencies. Its services are chiefly diagnostic, with an exception in the case of dental treatment, for which the community has few free facilities. The examining staff is composed of salaried specialists, who spend part of their working day at the Health Center—three physicians, one psychologist, two psychiatrists, a clinical pathologist, and two dentists. In addition a nutrition worker, a psychiatric case worker, and adequate clinical assistants give full time service. The records of the Community Health Center from March 1, 1921 to February 1, 1924, show:

NUMBER EXAMINED	PHYSICAL	MENTAL	DENTAL
Children	4510	1642	3144
Adults	1142	269	1021
Total	5652	1911	4165
INITIAL EXAMINATIONS	5652	1911	4165 (treatments)
RE-EXAMINATIONS	5116	102	7172 (treatments)
Total	10768	2013	11337
LABORATORY WORK			
Blood for Wassermanns	1053		
Urinalysis	6752		
Vaginal Smears	1168		
Blood Counts	37		

Treatments secured through allied organizations as the result of examinations at the Community Health Center.....6458

The Community Health Center also carries on an educational campaign through talks to adults and to children, group demonstration lessons, exhibits, and teaching in the homes, and its diagnostic files have given opportunity for scientific research in the field of its efforts.

FRANCES N. HARRISON

in the figures of an active and energetic medical work done by the Jewish Welfare Society and other agencies, which the Community Health Center is serving. The practical effects are demonstrated in the corresponding increase of medical services, as shown in the table opposite.

It must be noted that in this table the number of families receiving service, rather than the actual number of services, is given, so that if all the members of the family were provided with a medical examination during one month, that would be recorded as only one service.

The actual increase in the number of families was from 242 per month in 1920-21 to 654 per month during the last six month period, or almost a trebling amount of the medical work done. The average number of families receiving medical services, per hundred families under care, increased from 42.3 per cent in 1920-21 to 78.1 per cent in 1923, an increase of 85 per cent.

As a matter of fact, the table somewhat under-estimates the results of the emphasis put upon medical work. On a basis of total number of families under care, the number of physical examinations does not seem to show any increase, but as physical examinations are primarily arranged for new cases, their number should be compared with new applications rather than with total number of cases under care.

Year	Average Monthly Number of Applications	Average Monthly Number of Families Examined	Ratio (Per 100 applications)
1920-21	83	73	88
1921-22	101	90	89
1922-23	103	125	121
1923 (May to Oct.)	83	106	128

If physical and mental examinations are excluded, then the active medical services increased in the following proportion:

In 1920-21	27.4	per	100	families	under	care
In 1921-22	47.	"	"	"	"	"
In 1922-23	56.5	"	"	"	"	"
In 1923 (May to October)	64.	"	"	"	"	"

It is, of course, difficult to evaluate statistically the results of this increased medical work in terms of improved health. Individual cases, where adults have been enabled to return to work, or where children have improved in their general physical condition and are making better progress in school, could be quoted freely, but that would be an almost useless effort of cumulative evidence. Our purpose has been simply to emphasize the large field for medical work which family case agencies may readily discover, the amount of work that can be done with the existing medical agencies. And finally, the influence of spreading the gospel of periodic physical examinations through specialized institutions, such as the Community Health Center, or through some other form of cooperation with the existing medical institutions. The lesson of the Community Health Center and similar agencies is not limited to what can be done with applicants to family case agencies. It must be extended further to the population at large. Perhaps, its real lesson points towards more intensive work in the field of medical examination of school children, carried to its logical conclusion in an effective system of school medicine.

I. M. RUBINOW, M.D.

Junior Month

JUNIOR Month, now in its eighth year, is an organized effort to show the undergraduate girl what Page 89 in Sociology really means in terms of the Bowery. In 1917 a member of the board of the New York Charity Organization Society agreed with Mrs. John M. Glenn, chairman of the proposed Junior Month Committee, that something of the sort was needed, and so through the generosity of this anonymous donor, Junior Month was born and continues to flourish today. Each summer, on the Fourth of July, these twelve Juniors descend on New York like young sky-rockets

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and for four weeks they live, work and play together, seeing how social theories and facts really jibe.

Smith, Radcliffe, Barnard, Mt. Holyoke, Connecticut, Elmira, Wells, Wellesley, Goucher, Swarthmore, Bryn Mawr and Vassar are the twelve colleges invited to send one Junior each to New York as an official undergraduate representative, to be the guest of the Charity Organization Society for four weeks. These Juniors are selected not by the C. O. S., but by a Student-Faculty Committee at each college. The winning Junior is selected for her powers of leadership, her concern for civic and social welfare, her academic standing especially in the social sciences, and lastly, her "all-aroundness" in college. This sounds rather impossible, but an acquaintance with the Juniors during July would demonstrate that such students "do grow." In recent years there has been so much competition for the Junior Month privilege in most of the colleges that selection has been difficult. Last spring after one committee had met repeatedly, it finally eliminated all the candidates but three and then telegraphed the C. O. S.—"Do you want Student President, Class President, or leader of debate?" Our answer was—"We will accept the verdict of the college."

So it has turned out that the Junior who survives the acid test of the college committee is a girl of Grade A calibre and a citizen of promise. Because each representative has all her expenses met while she is in New York and her way paid to and from college or home (if home is no further away than college) the choice of student is not limited to the girl of means. Many of the rejected Juniors have applied to attend Junior Month at their own expense but upon consideration this has been refused chiefly because it is difficult to run a program like Junior Month with more than a handful of students.

The Agenda for July

Believing one of the greatest values of the plan is the group psychology of it, the director of Junior Month arranges for the girls to live together with a district secretary of the Charity Organization Society as hostess. One of New York's most attractive private schools turns over part of its equipment to the Juniors for cost price and here they eat, sleep, play, argue and study together. A system of student government is installed almost before the last fire cracker has subsided on July fourth, and the girls are then responsible to the Junior Chairman whom they select.

In choosing the topics and trips to be covered during the month, an attempt is made to give the students a panoramic view of the whole field. So the topics touched on include housing and health, the delinquent girl, child welfare, medical social service, the mental defective, mental hygiene and psychiatry, industry, criminology, community work, immigration, work with the handicapped, the case-work approach to social problems. Obviously, only the high points can be covered, but Junior Month is intended to give a "slant" rather than intensive training. Those who organized the program, in thinking back on their own college days, felt that a hot summer month is no time for concentrated theory —that Junior Month must be "teaching social work via the project method"—hearing, seeing and then doing. Each week is therefore divided up as follows: Three days' field work in a C. O. S. district where work is carefully selected for them from the point of view of variety; the other two and a half days devoted to lectures and trips. The lecturers are nationally known experts in their fields, familiar often to the students as names seen on the college library shelves. To be able to sit together with such leaders in an informal lecture and discussion group the Juniors have considered an inestimable privilege.

Hearing and Seeing

Perhaps the first thing to strike the student in case work is the shocking housing conditions in the tenements. Realizing this, the director of Junior Month last year had as the first lecturers Lawson Purdy, former president of the National Conference of City Planning, and John J. Murphy, former tenement house commissioner of New York City. Next to housing was the rather appalling effect the sight of city tenement children in hot summer days had on the Juniors. So child welfare took the next place on the program. Henry Thurston, of the faculty of the New York School of Social Work, discussed the handicapped child, the neglected, the delinquent and the dependent child. The problem child was further dwelt on by Arthur Towne, former head of the Brooklyn S. P. C. C. Following Mr. Towne's lecture the Juniors were invited by Judge Hoyt to attend a session at the Children's Court to see in flesh and blood what happened to the children Mr. Towne had described. This was followed by a trip to the New York Orphanage, a model cottage plan institution about which its founder, Dr. Reeder, wrote "How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn." While this happy picture was still in their minds, the students were taken to the kind of institution which even today smacks of the experiences of Oliver Twist. The Juniors were horrified and depressed but stoutly maintained they were glad to know the truth. "Was it that bad in their own home states?" they wondered. They'd find out! Perhaps they would not have recovered easily from this shock had not Calvin Derrick invited them to the State Home for Boys at Jamesburgh, N. J., where the Reformatory for Boys is one which considers its function that of re-education, not punishment. Mr. Derrick's talk made a profound impression which to this day has not faded even in the excitement of the last months before graduation.

And this was only part of the first week. The days were all too short for the Juniors to absorb all they wished and the Survey pages are all too few to describe adequately how each field of social work through its leaders interplayed with the others to give the students a fair picture of the profession.

All work and no play might make Jill a dull girl, so a balanced diet of fun and work is sought. Perhaps it is "low brow" like a trip to Coney Island or the Music Box Revue. Then again it is going to Little Italy on the night of the famous fiesta of Our Lady of Mt. Carmel, or a trip to the Ghetto. Week-ends of swimming and tennis and good-riddance to city streets bring them back refreshed to the Monday morning Round Table. Best of all, though, is the last picnic under the Palisades where hot dogs are consumed and promises exchanged that not one will ever forget this month of comradeship with each other and the new vision of the world that is caught.

Purposes and By-Products

The primary object of Junior Month is the interpretation of modern social work to a wider audience than can be reached in the course of the day's work. That is why a Junior is chosen. She goes back to her college as a Senior,

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in the fall, to translate to her campus world, both students and faculty, the discoveries she has made. She writes the story of Junior Month for her college weekly; she talks to student groups and writes on special topics for her class room.

In her own home town she looks around with new eyes to see how social problems are met; fired by her enthusiasm (and quite unabashed by the brevity of her experience) she talks to the town fathers and the Women's Clubs, and has often aroused them from lethargy to action. One Junior reports being called on by the mayor and two aldermen to render the town's thanks for the honor she had brought.

No small by-product of Junior Month is publicity for social work. One of the Juniors' favorite indoor sports is interviewing the ever-present reporter. Newspapers and magazines have heralded Junior Month as a valuable new experiment.

Another by-product has been the bringing into the field of social work splendid material from the colleges. The majority of the Juniors of former years are in social work or some closely allied field. Many of their classmates whose interest was aroused have chosen the same profession. Members of the faculty, very slightly acquainted with the aims and accomplishments of modern social work, are brought closer to that field through Junior Month. It has seemed to those who have charge of Junior Month that no matter what future each Junior selects, the investment in her will have been more than worth while, for having caught the vision of Junior Month, she is going to be always on the side of the exploited and will blaze many a trail leading toward social justice.

"If only we could have a 'Junior Month' for business men, for politicians, for mothers, for debutantes, for labor leaders and the thousand and one groups that go to make up American life," said one faculty member, "what strides we could take!"

CLARE TOUSLEY

PORTO RICAN CHILDREN are surveyed in the first of a series of United States Children's Bureau studies of child welfare in the insular possessions of the United States. The report, written by Helen V. Bary, consists of a general review of the conditions affecting the welfare of children—education, housing, health, wages, agriculture, industry and the courts, followed by a full description of the activities undertaken in 1922 when Porto Rico had a children's year. How intimately the welfare of children is interwoven into the whole social fabric of a people is again illustrated with convincing clarity. In spite of educational progress, at least 50 per cent of the children of school age are not in school and 55 per cent of the population 10 years and over are illiterate (compared with 6 per cent in the United States). Housing and sanitation are very primitive, most of the country people living in thatched huts worth about $20. The number of migratory workers, due to the seasonal requirements of the sugar and tobacco crops, is large. Most of these have no homes of their own and almost no possessions and the problem of educating and caring for their children is serious. The death-rate in Porto Rico, though decreasing, is still nearly twice as high as in the United States, with extremely high rates for tuberculosis, malaria, rickets and hookworm. The infant mortality rate is 162 per thousand babies born alive compared with 76 for the United States. There is dearth of physicians and trained nurses, and hospital conditions in general are characterized as "deplorable."

IT WOULD SEEM that this young miss, sufficiently observant and ingenious to appropriate so neatly a slogan usually associated with commodities not so hard to find as good foster-parents, ought to get what she is going after. She goes, moreover, with neatness and despatch, for her four feet are arranged in swastika shape and twinkle in a most realistic fashion when she is assisted across a desk. This walking paper doll is put out by the State Charities Aid Association of New York with a few lines of appeal for membership contributions on her —well, her reverse.

A BUSINESS MAN, Joseph C. Goodman, was chairman of the committee which carried through Child Labor Week in Columbus at the end of January. The governor of Ohio and mayor of the city both issued proclamations endorsing the movement for a federal constitutional amendment and inviting the attention of churches and local organizations to it. Churches and schools considered child labor on Sunday and Monday respectively, and during the week fifty or more organizations adopted resolutions urging Congress to approve the amendment—including Rotary, Advertising, Mercator, Rhombus, Lions, Optimist, Trojan, Civitan, Kiwanis, Exchange Clubs, the Chamber of Commerce, the Knights of Columbus, Federation of Women's Club, Women's Association of Commerce, Young Business Men's Club, Sunset Literary Club, and Ladies Aid Society.

FROM JAPAN comes a stirring tale. Hundreds of men in the Tokyo penitentiary for long term convicts found the walls of their prison laid flat by the tremendous earthquake, but as if hypnotized not a man of them seized the chance to regain his freedom. The reason? According to Galem M. Fisher it was simply the superb character and teaching of their warden, S. Arima, a sterling Christian who for decades has contended almost single-handed for the new penology represented in America by Thomas Mott Osborne. The story is vividly sketched in a letter to Mr. Fisher from Caroline Macdonald, the founder of the Tokyo Neighborhood House: "The prison walls at Kosuge fell flat, as did also all the workshops. There was no attempt at escape and for three nights they slept outside under the trees (1,300 prisoners with sentences from twelve years to life—over two hundred life men). The other prisons handcuffed their men and had some panic (it was no wonder) but Mr. Arima did not handcuff anyone and there was no panic. They rallied around Mr. Arima and stood their ground. Mr. Arima said to me with tears in his eyes, 'I expected my men to behave well in a crisis, but even I was surprised at the way they did behave.' It is a vindication of his theory and practice that he has held to for thirty years, that if you treat people like human beings they'll behave like human beings. The men are also very proud of themselves and I don't wonder. I have a swelled feeling in my own bosom when I think of them. I have over two hundred pals there myself!" Miss Macdonald's own success among criminals, juvenile delinquents and others, for many years past, abundantly supports Mr. Arima's position.

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BOOK REVIEWS

From Primitive Chaos to the Nordic Cosmos

THOUGH evolutionists and fundamentalists do not seem to be able to agree as to where man came from, how he got here, where he is going or how he is to get there, the innocent bystander has been cheering himself with the thought that all parties would have to agree that man is "here"! That, too, turns out to be only the more or less substantial "fabric of a dream." Something, called "man" for convenience, is more or less "here." But what is man? Is he an Immortal Soul, visiting these shores of time for a fleeting moment in making the round of Eternity? Is he a blade of grass, "which today is and tomorrow is cast into the oven?" Is he something somewhere between these limits? Happy the man or woman or child who has some satisfactory hint of an answer to this question, by means of which to test the fleeting experiences of the moment and the persistent attempts of the writers of books to compel upon us their own answers.

We begin with primitive chaos. Professor John M. Tyler, eminent biologist of Amherst College, author of books that have had a profound influence upon the course of education, sums up in his Coming of Man "the story of man's slow and endless 'coming.'" Professor Tyler is, of course, an evolutionist; but he is also (what some evolutionists have failed to be) a true humanist. "Life" is to him something more than a "phenomenon": it is also a *value*. It is something to be understood; but it is also something to be prized. He would persuade a "few thoughtful souls to wonder at the amoeba, to become interested in the highly significant hydra, to admire clams and worms, to marvel at the strange experiments of reptiles, and gain a fellow-feeling for the plodding primitive mammal, the sleek cat and the 'aspiring ape.'" He abjures those who need it to remember that "in Hebrew, Greek and Latin, salvation means restoration to, maintenance of, perfect health; that health, haleness, wholeness and holiness are all akin in root and synonymous." So on the basis of a profound biological knowledge, Professor Tyler helps us to see Man, who is "surely coming, though he has not yet arrived." This is the sort of book that ought to be able to convince even the fundamentalist!

Psychology has long been trying to analyze the individual. Social studies of various sorts have long been trying to analyze "society." It has long been suspected by the psychologists that their "individuals" somehow make up "society," though their psychology gave little if any clue as to how an aggregation of such "individuals" could ever come to know each other, love one another, (to hate each other seemed not impossible!) or come to any of the other relationships that do actually exist in the world. On the other hand, when the students of "society" got through with their analyses, the concrete human being had usually vanished, leaving in his place something of a mannikin, like the well-known "economic man." Surely there is some connection between man the individual, and man the member of the group! This most fruitful field of inquiry has been discovered in the past twenty years, and the social psychologists are working away in it. Professor Groves' Personality and Social Adjustment is a contribution from this field to practical workers in social and educational areas. It sums up admirably the practical results achieved.

Professor Weeks, in his Control of the Social Mind, works from the same general standpoint, but he is interested in the theoretical aspects of the problem, and his book is an attempt to popularize the work of the theoretical social psychologists. The results are introductory; but the book is over-long and somewhat wordy.

The contagion of ideas is one of the most deadly of human perils. A year ago, Professor Josey, of Dartmouth College, published a book called The Social Philosophy of Instinct, in which he said:

> In many circles it is assumed that, as a result of the evolution of the species, we possess certain inherited or innate forces in virtue of which we act and which largely determine how we act. Our behavior, according to this view, is determined—not by the give-and-take relations existing between us and our environment—but by *forces* which we inherit as a result of the give-and-take relations our ancestors sustained to their environment.

Professor Josey severely criticised this argument and denied its validity. It should be obvious, he said, that "the behavior of living organisms cannot be interpreted in terms of conditions confronted by their ancestors, or in terms of the adaptations of their ancestors." "We should take it as axiomatic," he went on to say, "that the only conditions which can be used to interpret the behavior of an organism are the conditions that affect the organism." That is to say, any attempt to explain the behavior of an organism, including man, by an appeal to "ancestral adaptations" involves fallacies—which he explains at great length.

Now Professor Josey has written another book, Race and National Solidarity. But he has had a change of mind in the meantime. He seems to have caught the contagion which has long possessed Stoddard, Grant and McDougall. He sees "our group" threatened by the forward thrust of other groups whose standards of living and capacity to use the world wisely make them undeniably inferior. We must do something to protect "our group." "Our group" must dominate the world—not only because it is "right," and for our good, but because it will be for the good of the whole world. How can this be "right"? Well, it is biologically right: "our group" has racial characteristics, that is, "ancestral adaptations," which are supremely important to the world. These characteristics which, last year,

THE COMING OF MAN, *by John M. Tyler. Marshall Jones Co. 147 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT, *by Ernest R. Groves. Longmans, Green and Co. 296 pp. Price $1.40 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE CONTROL OF THE SOCIAL MIND, *by Arland D. Weeks. D. Appleton and Co. 263 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
RACE AND NATIONAL SOLIDARITY, *by Charles C. Josey. Charles Scribner's Sons. 227 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Professor Josey would have called "cultural," have now become "innate." Hence, though other races may imitate our culture ("the inferior race imitates the superior culture") yet, if our race is eliminated, the world will be the poorer, no matter how much of our culture may be saved.

This book may be recommended to all who need to have their "group egotism" bolstered up. There are occasional paragraphs of an excellent quality in it. But it sounds a little too much like the "last warning" to a heedless race; and when one compares the author of 1922 with the author of 1923, the wonder grows as to which is real.

J. K. H.

On the Art of Marriage

A PLEA FOR MONOGAMY, *by Wilfrid Lay. Boni and Liveright. 305 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE man who has thought of marriage as a civil contract entitling him to *receive* in perpetuity, without the pains of further spiritual *giving*, will be jolted by this book out of his complacent selfishness. We have here primarily a plea for an unselfish devotion, a careful analysis of the causes of conflict, misunderstandings, arrested emotional development, and an exposition of the contrast between a life of child-like personal self-indulgence on the part of man and the necessity for a commanding affection by the woman.

The thesis of this book is that

> the only distinctive man's work in the world is to keep winding them [marriages] up. The man that lets his marriage run down is probably a perpetual-motion crank at heart. He thinks that in marriage he has found a thing that will run by itself forever.

Mr. Lay, a life-long teacher of children, a student by inclination, a psychologist by long training through observation and practice, ventures upon topics which men, and particularly husbands, have assumed they knew by the birthright of their sex, by the privileges of legalized social relations, by physical control over the person of the wife. He confronts them with their inadequacy, their mother-made selfishness, their immature and infantile emotions, aiming at self-satisfaction instead of gratification of another.

The thesis is well maintained, and one lays the book down in humility rather than resentment. The author belabors his subject by repetition, apparently in the determination to leave no line of approach and counter-argument exposed to attack. His philosophy of personal conduct, his ethics of social relationships are those honestly and earnestly held, though often clumsily promoted, by the advocates of social hygiene. He suggests, rather than describes or lists, the items in the development of many a neurotic invalid. He gives us a glimpse into some of the preventable causes of mental or emotional behavior dilemmas and disease.

The book does not sully the waters of life. It has a reasonableness and gentleness which justifies the frankness of the exposition. Mr. Lay begs us men to take thought of the pattern of our lives, and live less selfishly and give more thought to the art of marriage.

Like all other enthusiasts, Mr. Lay sees in his formula a panacea; we cannot avoid a reservation in reading his confident promise that every one will be healthy, wealthy and wise, just as soon as the husband learns the simple lesson that he must control his wife's emotional life by superior skill and strength of spirit, tenderness, self-control and devotion to her. Surely some of the limitations of character will escape the mellowing solvent of the perfect love he depicts. But we can join heartily with him in the faith that the object of marriage is to make the woman and her children happy, and not primarily to satisfy the craving of man for possession.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

Two Roads to Civilization

THE NEW WORLD OF LABOR, *by Sherwood Eddy. George H. Doran Co. 220 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE PROSPECTS OF INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION, *by Bertrand Russell. The Century Co. 287 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

TAKEN separately, these two books by Sherwood Eddy and Bertrand Russell will appeal primarily to those who have a special interest in the condition of labor throughout the world, and in the philosophy of industry as the backbone of modern civilization. Taken together, they make a far wider appeal. Both men have an intense interest in bringing to pass what our old-fashioned church-going fathers used to call the Kingdom of God on Earth. Both are devoted evangelists of what men not quite so old-fashioned call the New Social Order. But fundamentally they are even more passionately concerned about saving the world from one another—in so far as each is typical of a school of idealistic thinking—than they are about almost anything else.

Sherwood Eddy is a modern-minded liberal Christian, at once able, sincere and devout. He believes that the salvation of the world depends upon a willing and universal obedience to Christian teaching. To Bertrand Russell both religion and the church are survivals of barbarism; he says:

> There can be no doubt that at any period during the last 600 years, Christendom would have gained morally by the extinction of the church. This is still the case in our own day, and emancipation from the churches is still an essential condition of improvement, particularly in America, where the churches have more influence than in Europe. . . . In England the church objected to those who wanted to remove a few of the grossest abuses of the factory system. In America it objected to abolitionists. In Belgium it objected to the agitation against the Congo atrocities. . . . In France and Germany before the war the most bloodthirsty of all militarist journals were called respectively La Croix and Die Kreuzzeitung.

Here is a scintillating clash of opinion between two men both of whom are inspired by the highest ideals, the most disinterested desire to lead the world out of its present chaos into a civilized state. It is for this reason that we recommend the reading of the two books together as a stimulating and illuminating experience.

I had the privilege of discussing his plans with Mr. Eddy, when more than a year ago he set out on his journey around the world. It was probably under the influence of the high-minded leaders of the British Labor Party that Mr. Eddy had come to feel that the best hope of attaining to a Christian social order lay in the modern labor movement. There is a peculiar quality of brotherliness, idealism and mutual aid in the labor movement that profoundly appeals to him. Remembering that many of the grosser injustices of our machine civilization arose out of the particular type of industrialism created by large scale machine production, and having a first-hand knowledge of the machine's invasion of Japan, China and India, where he had spent many of the best years of his life, he conceived the high purpose of making a detailed study

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of labor and industry in those countries with a view to helping his brothers there to profit by our experience—to win the advantages of machine production without falling victim to the evils of the machine. He was unable to find an industrial expert to accompany him on this high mission so he undertook the task alone. In his book he gives us a series of vivid and admirably documented reports of conditions as he found them, not only in the oriental countries but in Russia, the Ruhr and England, and he has supplemented these with a penetrating analysis of the labor movement in America. His account of the ruthless exploitation of men, women and children in the Far East deserves a place with the Hammonds' studies of the town, village and skilled laborers in England between the years of 1760 and 1832.

But it becomes manifest to one who reads attentively that his greatest hope for better things rests upon the spiritual leadership of men like Gandhi and Toyohiko Kagawa—a convert to Christianity. He gives a most sympathetic report of the efforts of the Russian communists to build a new civilization in Russia; but Russia's way is not the Christian way—a note which he sounds again and again as a warning, and it is in the light of his inner Christian conviction that there is but one true way of life that he analyzes conditions in the Ruhr, in England and America. This is a book which all men will profit by reading; to men and women who call themselves Christians it has a message of first-rate importance.

Bertrand Russell approaches his diagnosis of industrial civilization from a radically different point of view. What he thinks of religion in general, and all organized Christianity in particular, I have already indicated. But curiously enough he has a kind of religion of his own.

> Pure science—the understanding of natural processes, and the discovery of how the universe is constructed—seems to me the most godlike thing that men do. When I am tempted (as I often am) to wish the human race wiped out by some passing comet, I think of scientific knowledge and of art; these two things seem to make our existence not wholly futile.

It is from this point of view that his analysis of industrial civilization proceeds. Its quality can hardly be conveyed except in his own trenchant words. I quote at random:

> What is called civilization may be defined as the pursuit of objects not biologically necessary for survival. . . . To have lived a certain number of years, consumed a certain amount of food, begotten a certain number of children similar to oneself, and then died, is not the utmost of which men are capable; yet owing to the scant productivity of labor, it was, until lately, all that most men could hope to achieve. Now, so far as physical conditions are concerned, better possibilities exist; education and sufficient leisure could, if we chose, exist throughout the whole community, and the business of keeping alive could become an easy and unimportant part of our daily occupation. . . .
>
> It is through the interactions of nationalism and industrialism, even more than through the conflict of capitalism and socialism, that the world is being driven back into barbarism. Unless the destructive effects of nationalism can be mitigated, there seems little hope for mankind except in a total collapse of the industrial system. . . .
>
> It is science, ultimately, that makes our age different, for good or evil, from the ages that have gone before. And science, whatever harm it may cause by the way, is capable of bringing mankind ultimately into a far happier condition than any that has been known in the past.

One is tempted to share more of these trenchant observations, but I hope that enough has been given to persuade the reader that these two books will reward his further acquaintance.

R. W. B.

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Industry and Economics

THE SAILOR'S UNION OF THE PACIFIC, *by Paul S. Taylor. The Ronald Press Co. 188 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS IS a noteworthy addition to the growing body of studies of individual American trade unions. The evolution of the seamen from their virtual serfdom of fifty years ago, when they were the helpless prey of crimps and ship captains, to a position of independence, is graphically portrayed. It has been the Seamen's Union which has been responsible for this improvement in status and to attain it they have employed political as well as economic methods. Perhaps Dr. Taylor's greatest contribution is in showing precisely what the LaFollette Seamen's Law actually means. Thus the abolition of arrest and imprisonment as the penalty for desertion in safe harbor is shown to have been not the end, but the means of the union's effort. By giving the sailor the power of "working the oracle" or leaving the ship unless conditions are satisfactory, it has enabled him to employ his economic strength and by withholding his labor have a greater opportunity of bringing the owner to fair terms. The granting of the same privilege to foreign sailors in American ports was also designed to bring wages on foreign vessels up to the American level, through enabling the alien sailors to ship on American boats. An interesting account is given of the struggle between the Furuseth-Scharrenberg wing of the Seamen's Union and the I. W. W. which followed the unsuccessful marine strike of 1921. The side-lights upon the personality of Andrew Furuseth himself are fascinating. He is revealed as an idealistic, dauntless individualist who believes that men must fight their own battles. In the words of Dr. Taylor "he works for the seamen and the seamen alone. He plays a lone hand and cares little for the support of other groups of workers except as they aid the preservation of enforcement of the Seamen's Act. Of the longshoremen, he asks only that they leave the seamen alone." Craft-conscious and restricted in outlook as he is, Furuseth nevertheless seems to possess a spiritual force which is rare among men. His reply to Fremont Older's warning, that he might be jailed for refusing to obey an injunction, is typical of the man—"they can't put me in a smaller room than I've always lived in, they can't give me plainer food than I've always eaten, they can't make me any lonelier than I've always been."

PAUL H. DOUGLAS

THE LABOUR WHO'S WHO OF 1924. *London, The Labour Publishing Company, Ltd. 192 pp. Price 7s. 6d.*

THE UNEXPECTEDLY rapid arrival of a labor government in Great Britain makes this little volume extremely opportune. The book, as its editors say in their introduction, is not a directory of the whole labor and cooperative movement, nor is it a literary composition. But its editors have done their utmost to make it complete, and there are few names which have reached American ears that are not included in its pages. Few books will so quickly indicate the essential difference between the British and the American labor movements, for here in this Labour's Who's Who are names of engineers, economists, university professors, journalists, clergymen, novelists, as well as men who have risen from the rank and file of labor to positions of leadership. And another peculiarly English quality emerges from its pages; under Ramsay MacDonald one learns that the Prime Minister's chief recreation is walking; Alefounder, Henry Rushbrook, Gen. Sec. and Ed. enters his recreations as "field path ramblings," etc. How characteristically British "field path ramblings" sounds! Here are listed the achievements not only of Robert Applegarth, M. I. E. E., retired Joiner, but of Ralph Norman Angell, G. D. H. Cole, Sidney and Beatrice Webb, George Bernard Shaw, as well as

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members of the Labour Cabinet. A most timely and useful book! R. W. B.

THE BRITISH TRADE BOARDS SYSTEM, *by Dorothy Sells. P. S. King & Son. 293 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE PERSONAL RELATION IN INDUSTRY, *by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Boni & Liveright. 149 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CONTROL OF CREDIT, *As a Remedy for Unemployment, by J. R. Bellerby. P. S. King & Son, Ltd. 120 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN OUTLINE OF THE BRITISH LABOR MOVEMENT, *by Paul Blanshard. George H. Doran Co. 174 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Health

GREEK BIOLOGY AND MEDICINE, *by Henry Osborn Taylor. (In the series, Our Debt to Greece and Rome). Marshall Jones Company. 151 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

"OUR CORRELATED modern sciences which are called biological because they treat of living organisms, have pushed their researches and discoveries far beyond the achievements of the Greeks. They are not a graft upon a Greek stem: they have arisen through the direct study of nature, not from the old Greek books. Thus they have shown a Greek spirit. It is in this modern renewal of a scientific mind, rather than in any specific borrowings from the ancient stock, that we should seek to recognize what Greece has been and still may be for us." It is this fruitful current of the scientific mind, rather than its concrete embodiments as science, which the author traces through the lives and writings of Hippocrates, Aristotle, and Galen. M. R.

HEALTH CONFESSIONS OF BUSINESS WOMEN, *by Business Women Division of Industrial Hygiene, Provincial Board of Health of Ontario. 265 pp.*

ONE HARDLY sees why health needed to be the subject of a "confession," anyway, but the tone adopted by the Division of Industrial Hygiene in soliciting confidential letters from business women on their health experiences was successful in eliciting between two and three hundred letters from which the present book has been made. Inevitably they contain little that is new, but they give, probably, a more concrete and workable sidelight on the business woman's view of her problems and their solution than could be obtained from a less intimate, and less sentimental, treatment of "personal hygiene." M. R.

ARCHITECTURAL DESIGNS FOR A SMALL HOSPITAL, *edited by J. J. Weber. Published by The Modern Hospital Publishing Company. 104 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

BEING SICK might be almost a pleasurable experience in many of the projected hospitals described in this book, which grew out of a prize architectural contest conducted by the Modern Hospital Publishing Company in 1922. The jury of award, however, which included hospital executives as well as architects, considered practicability and economy as well as beauty, and the resulting plans should offer excellent models on all three counts for communities contemplating small hospitals. M. R.

WALKING FOR HEALTH, *by Alvah H. Doty. D. Appleton & Co. 44 pp. Price $.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE ELEMENTS OF PUBLIC HEALTH ADMINISTRATION, *by George S. Luckett and Harold F. Gray. P. Blakiston's Sons & Co. 450 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Behavior and Mental Health

THE BASIS OF PSYCHIATRY (*Psychobiological Medicine*), *by Albert C. Buckley. J. B. Lippincott Company. 447 pp. Price $7.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS IS distinctly one of the few American text-books of psychiatry to which one may confidently turn for an authoritative statement of the subject-matter, problems and methods of psychiatry. The special approach of this author, as is indicated in the sub-title, is the psycho-biological, a point of view which considers the "reactions of the patient as a whole individual" as the subject matter underlying every problem in psychiatry. While the author follows the traditional classification in the clinical part of the book, he does emphasize the importance of looking at the individual patient from the point of view of the adaptive reaction reflected in his disorder, since only this type of approach makes possible an understanding of the dynamics of mental disorder. The chapters dealing with biological phenomena, cerebral development and mental development constitute a very substantial and lucidly written introduction to the clinical part of the book, and should facilitate for the beginner the understanding of some of the most essential problems of this branch of medicine. For the social worker and others unacquainted with medical terminology the appended glossary will be particularly helpful, as will also the author's use of extensive reference to collateral reading at the end of each chapter. BERNARD GLUECK, M.D.

THE UNCONSCIOUS MIND, A PSYCHO-ANALYTIC SURVEY, *by S. Herbert. Macmillan Co. 230 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE UNSTABLE CHILD, *by Florence Mateer. D. Appleton Co. 471 pp. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

JUDGE BAKER FOUNDATION CASE STUDIES, *Series 1, edited by William Healey and Augusta Bronner. Judge Baker Foundation, 40 Court St., Boston, Mass. 19 pamphlets of 30 to 40 pages each.*

Education, Ethics and Sociology

THE NEW DECALOGUE OF SCIENCE, *by Albert Edward Wiggam. Bobbs-Merrill Co. 314 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SCIENTISTS ARE developing the habit of turning prophet these days. It is true that science is supposed to be justified to the extent that it can predict future events, as, for example, the astronomer predicts eclipses. But there is a good deal of difference between prediction and prophecy. Professor Wiggam has failed to take note of this difference. He has gone up to the top of the mountain with a few facts which might have served excellently as the basis of a few predications, or even of predictions. Instead of that, however, the rarified air of the mountain top has led him to use those facts as the basis of an entire new Decalogue. Feeling insecure in this role of major prophet, he asked Bernard Shaw for a blessing upon the enterprise. Shaw's reply was that the new prophet had "made a mess of the whole business." The book is interesting and stimulating reading; but anyone who accepts it as having been "given in the Mount" will do well to give it a critical reading. The contradictions are a bit too numerous and too glaring to allow it to stand as authentic prophecy or law. J. K. H.

THE FIGHTING INSTINCT, *by Pierre Bovet. Dodd Mead & Co. 252 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE MATERIALS of a course of lectures given by the author in the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute, Geneva, in the winter of 1915-16. Those lectures were given under the impact of the war and war psychology, and this book is, in the main, a discussion of three aphorisms about war which, the author says, were in circulation in and around Geneva in those days. These aphorisms were: "As long as children fight adults will make war"; "Political groups, balked in their self-expressions, revert to forms of infantile mentality and morality: war is such a reversion"; "Peace can be secured to the world only by an education that is pacifist in character." The author examines these aphorisms as social postulates, and finds a great deal of substance in them; but finds also that they can be made into an educational program only by educational psychologists who are able to envisage them as parts of a comprehensive social program. J. K. H.

HOW TO EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION, *by William A. McCall. The Macmillan Company. 281 pp. Price $2.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

A MANUAL of the methodology of educational experimentation for the use of teachers and students of pedagogy who either wish to engage in experimental work, or who want to understand the vast amounts of experimental literature appearing in this field. J. K. H.

LEARNING ENGLISH, *by Annie Fisher. Ginn and Company. 306 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A CONVERSATION reader and language book for new Americans, that is, for immigrants. The author is a district superintendent of schools in Hart- (*Continued on page 713*)

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

THE REGIONAL CONFERENCE idea is making headway in Ohio. Stark County recently held its first annual welfare conference, at Canton. A committee from Youngstown looked on to see how the affair was organized, in order to start the ball rolling at home. Workers in Springfield, Montgomery County, are talking of a similar meeting.

Such local conferences—though not actively organized by the State Welfare Conference—are, according to Howard R. Knight, its executive secretary, "somewhat stimulated" by the state body, and in each case there has been active cooperation between state and local groups. "I hope with this as a beginning this year," Mr. Knight writes, "that next year we may have ten or a dozen such local conferences over the state."

The high spot of the Canton meeting was the dinner at which Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation called attention to the condition of the city and county jails and county workhouse. His offer of a dollar to any woman in the audience who could bring herself to handle the mattress on a cot in the women's quarters in the city jail was followed by the decision of a committee of the League of Women Voters and other interested women to make a visit of inspection the very next day. One morning of the conference was given up to a study of mental deficiency, health, recreation, the visiting teacher, and The School and Social Work were also represented on the program.

The conference was arranged for by the social workers' club of Stark County with the cooperation of the Ohio Institute as well as the state conference. The local group was entirely responsible for the program and put the conference over in good shape. There were more than 100 paid registrations, and the dinner at which Dr. Hart spoke brought out 250 people—a majority of them lay-folk—from all over the county. The county press gave excellent publicity. The conference closed its books with the nominal deficit of $30, and expects to make the conference pay its way next year.

Alliance, the second largest city in the county, has invited the conference for 1925; Massilon may have its turn in 1926.

IN A questionnaire on "the effect of prohibition on the homes of working people," the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of Churches rises to inquire: "Have *martial* relations between *husband* and *wives* improved? grown worse? no change?" The Church Militant would naturally be interested in martial relations, but the suggested relation between prohibition and polygamy is brand new.

MANTON B. METCALF of Orange, New Jersey, was president of the Welfare Federation of the Oranges from its organization until his death in October 1923. Mrs. Metcalf has now offered the community, as a memorial to her husband, a building which will serve as central headquarters for all the social agencies needing office space and for the federation itself. Offices, clinics, a general board room, and an assembly room seating 150 people will be included. It is hoped that the building will be ready for use by the first of next year.

EDITH ABBOTT'S appointment to be dean of the Graduate School of Social Service Administration at the University of Chicago is a significant one. After teaching at Wellesley, she served twelve years on the faculty of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy (lecturing also for much of this time at the University of Chicago), and when that school was taken over into the new Graduate School Miss Abbott became associate professor of social economy there. The University of Chicago press will shortly publish a new book by Miss Abbott on Immigration.

SPEAKING of Miss Abbott, one thinks naturally of her sister and the Children's Bureau—and there comes to mind the interesting fact that the bureau is practically without a clipping service at the moment. Congress in its wisdom, some half-century ago, set an arbitrary limit to appropriations for such service for the use of any federal bureau, and the bureau today is forced to gage the public interest in major problems of child welfare—so far as the press reveals it—on the by guess and by gosh basis.

LOS ANGELES is to have the next demonstration clinic under the direction of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, as part of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency. Dr. Ralph Truitt, formerly medical director of the Illinois Mental Hygiene Society, will be director. Dr. Christine Leonard leaves the Monmouth County Clinic to be chief of staff. Edith N. Burleigh, a member of the executive committee of the Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene, will be supervisor of social case work.

NEWS of the Constantinople Survey "flew east" as well as west, we learn from a co-worker of Clarence Richard Johnson, its director: "Even way out in Shanghai, China, when I went into an American book-store and asked for the Peking Survey they asked if I had seen the Constantinople Survey, of which they had copies. They recommended it highly, and were much interested to hear that I came from Constantinople." Professor Johnson is recuperating from overwork in Scandinavia, "up near the North Pole," he writes, "so as to get a real bracing winter to make up for the enervating winters of the past three years in Constantinople."

THE CHILD HEALTH survey of 86 cities between 40,000 and 70,000 population, conducted by the American Child Health Association, is to have the services this spring of Dr. Murray P. Horwood, assistant professor of biology and public health at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who has a leave of absence to work in the New England cities covered by the survey.

THADDEUS SLESZYNSKI, whose health and recreation experiment at Holstein Park, Chicago, aroused no small interest, has left social work to enter the field of financial publicity. He has become assistant to the vice-president in charge of publicity and business extension at the Northwestern Trust and Savings Bank, Chicago. Mr. Sleszynski has been active in recreation and tuberculosis work for 14 years.

TWO NOTABLE RECRUITS to the staff of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company are Dr. Wade Wright, instructor in the Harvard Medical School and a nationally known leader in the field of industrial hygiene, and Dr. Donald B. Armstrong, executive officer of the national Health Council. Dr. Wright becomes an assistant medical director of the company; Dr. Armstrong will be associated, as assistant secretary of the company, with the welfare department.

THE PUBLIC CHARITIES ASSOCIATION of Pennsylvania announces the appointment of Dr. A. J. Ostheimer to be medical director of its mental hygiene division, and of Caroline W. Jones, formerly field organizer with the State Welfare Department, to be secretary of the new welfare information bureau of the association.

A WOMAN, Rhoda Kaufman, has been elected to the executive leadership of the Georgia state department of public welfare. Miss Kaufman has served the department ever since its organization in 1920, and has been acting secretary since January, 1923. Mrs. L. B. Bush holds a similar office in Alabama; Mrs. Kate Burr Johnson in North Carolina. Miss Kaufman made her first contacts with social work as president of the Atlanta College Women's Club, and served with distinction as secretary of the state committee on the feeble-minded.

MRS. JAMES L. HOUGHTELING was the chairman of the first tuberculosis committee in Chicago—then a part of the Visiting Nurse Association. In 1906, when this committee became a separate organization under the name of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, Mrs. Houghteling became a member of its board of directors. Her 21 years of devotion to the fight against tuberculosis are gratefully remembered in Chicago. At the time of her death she was a director in the United Charities, the Y. W. C. A., and the Infant Welfare Society as well as the Tuberculosis Institute. The Chicago Council of Social Agencies quotes one of her co-workers as saying "She was the kind of person who kept on growing as Chicago grew."

THE NEW YORK School of Social Work, in cooperation with the American Social Hygiene Association, is offering a special program of instruction for properly qualified women who wish to prepare themselves to direct the work of policewomen units. This project is in direct response to an increasing demand for such workers. The course opens on March 24. Through the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association a limited number of scholarships are available. Information about these may be secured from the school at 105 East 22 street, New York.

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Book Reviews

(*Continued from page 711*)

ford, Conn., and the book itself is the result of class-room work: "No lesson is included that has not stood the test of actual class-room experience." J. K. H.

THE GOSLINGS, *by Upton Sinclair. Sinclair Publishing Co., Pasadena. 454 pp. Price $2.00 or (paper) $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A CRITICAL STUDY OF CERTAIN MEASURE OF MENTAL ABILITY AND SCHOOL PERFORMANCE, *by Inez May Neterer. Warwick & York, Inc. 141 pp. Price $1.80 postpaid of The Survey.*

A POINT SCALE FOR MEASURING MENTAL ABILITY, *by Robert M. Yerkes and Josephine C. Foster. Warwick & York, Inc. 219 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A LABORATORY MANUAL IN THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING, *by William H. Pyle. Warwick & York, Inc. 161 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR THE CANADIAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, *by A. Gordon Melvin. Warwick & York, Inc. 212 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SCIENCE AND SANCTITY, *by Victor Branford. Leplay House Press and Williams & Norgate, 65 Belgrave Road, Westminster, S. W. 1, London. 255 pp.*

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EUGENICS, *by Samuel J. Holmes. University of California Press. 154 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Community and Civic Affairs

THE DEPORTATIONS DELIRIUM OF NINETEEN-TWENTY, *by Louis F. Post. Charles H. Kerr Co. 338 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE WORD delirium in the title is descriptive of the mood which this book tries to record. After the armistice a kind of frenzy took possession of certain groups in the American community—and the "Reds," many of them innocent and kindly people, many of them women and young children, became the victims of a popular hysteria in which there was no discrimination and no sense of legal or constitutional protection of individual liberty. This book is a detailed study of the process of this delirium, of the agencies that were engaged, of the methods that were employed. It is written by a man who was himself the centre of the struggle to stem the national frenzy and who in consequence had the frenzy turned upon him. "War gets on the nerves of a people" and "crime waves," "war hysteria" and "Ku Klux Klans" are a part of the residue. This book in a sense is almost a text book in national hysteria—and one hopes that ultimately the raw materials of which this book is a summary—may find publication. Mr. Post has rendered a genuine service both to the present generation of American citizens who are interested in maintaining their constitutional liberties and to the future of America as an example of how and why a general attack upon constitutionally protected liberties was undertaken. The book is simply and well written and needs wide reading. FRANK TANNENBAUM

SMALL HOUSE DESIGNS, *edited by Carleton Monroe Winslow and Edward Fisher Brown. Community Arts Association, Santa Barbara, Calif. 153 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT IS NO SMALL public service to facilitate the building of good houses for little money. The Community Arts Association held a competition for houses to cost not more than $5000 at Santa Barbara, exhibited the designs offered, and has now published 62 of them together with suggestive and unusually detailed advice for small-house builders. While the first prize winner and a good many of the other designs draw chiefly on architectural types associated with southern California, many of the houses would be equally, or even more, appropriate in the North and East. G. S.

TOWN PLANNING AND TOWN DEVELOPMENT, *by S. D. Adshead. E. P. Dutton and Co. 204 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FROM THE doctrinaire spirit and from over-absorption in physical detail this genial book is singularly free. Professor Adshead (of London University) begins with Patrick Geddes' theory of the occupational origin of cities, discusses the major aspects of planning in terms of British towns and cities, and winds up with a detailed analysis of British (and, more briefly, Continental) legislation. The pace is leisurely, the material arranged with no very rigorous care. But always it is the homely reality and not the formula or the design which he takes

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The *Summer Institute* will be held from July 7-Aug. 16. There are available for this, ten fellowships of $120 plus $35 for tuition each for College Juniors or Seniors; ten fellowships of $120 plus $35 tuition each for visiting teachers and probation officers. Applications must be filed before April 12th. Additional information will be gladly furnished upon request.

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"THE UNPRINTABLE TEXT BOOK," *by Prof. Joseph K. Hart, editor of* THE SURVEY'S *Education Department, is a stimulating, provocative essay for anyone who is concerned with the unfolding minds of boys and girls. An attractive reprint, in two colors and with a portrait of Dr. Hart, will be sent to anyone for* 10 *cents; to teachers* FREE *on receipt of a postal card request to* THE SURVEY, 112 *East* 19 *Street, New York City.*

as his point of departure. He can even pause to point out that in suburbs with many small houses it is inconvenient "to have a path so narrow that two perambulators cannot pass one another." Though the book is directed definitely at a British audience it will supplement helpfully—largely because of the mature reasonableness with which current practises are examined—the more precise and methodical treatises available to students of planning in America.

G. S.

COUNTRY PLANNING, *by Frank A. Waugh, introduction by Kenyon L. Butterfield. Harcourt Brace and Co.* 183 *pp. Price* $1.25 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE RACINESS and forthright common sense which readers on rural subjects have long associated with Professor Waugh are at their best in this fresh contribution to The Farmer's Bookshelf. "Civic improvement, including country planning," he writes, "is . . . of great importance in dealing with this shy and stupid human race, for it enables us to speak in terms of property values when we really mean spiritual values." So in terms of roads and farmsteads, cemeteries and school grounds, he offers a program of country betterment so simply unfolded, and so trenchantly advocated, that the book must make itself felt even where rural inertia is most strongly entrenched.

G. S.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION IN THE UNITED STAAES (*Studies in administration*), *by Lloyd M. Short. The Johns Hopkins Press.* 531 *pp. Price* $5.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE (*No. 28 of Service Monographs of the United States Government*), *by Darrell Hevenor Smith. The Johns Hopkins Press.* 130 *pp. Price* $1.00 *of The Survey.*

THE BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE (*No. 29 of Service Monographs of the United States Government*), *by Laurence Schmeckebier and Gustavus Weber. Johns Hopkins Press.* 180 *pp. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE PATENT OFFICE (*No. 31 of Service Monographs of the United States Government. The Johns Hopkins Press.* 127 *pp. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

WITHIN or without the federal government there are few enough who know or study seriously its actual processes. Such as there are, however, look to the Institute for Government Research for painstaking accumulation and analysis of the facts. For such students it is necessary only to call attention, from time to time, to the appearance of new volumes in the institute's three parallel series: studies in administration, principles of administration, and service monographs.

G. S.

CRYSTALLIZING PUBLIC OPINION, *by Edward L. Bernays. Boni and Liveright.* 218 *pp. Price* $2.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE OLD-FASHIONED press-agent played a shrill penny whistle. The "counsel on public relations" conducts a symphony orchestra, in which the brass and wood-winds play prominent parts. Mr. Bernays writes frankly of the processes by which the herd instincts are exploited in the instincts of a new and far-ranging salesmanship.

G. S.

PROHIBITION, GOING OR COMING? *by Elton Raymond Shaw. Shaw Publishing Co.* 493 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE AMERICAN JUDGE, *by Andrew A. Bruce. Macmillan Co.* 218 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEWSPAPER AND AUTHORITY, *by Lucy Maynard Salmon. Oxford University Press.* 505 *pp. Price* $7.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

ADJUSTING IMMIGRANT AND INDUSTRY, *Americanization Studies, by William M. Leiserson. Harper & Bros.* 356 *pp. Price* $2.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

Foreign and International Affairs

THE WORLD STRUGGLE FOR OIL, *by Pierre L'Espagnol De La Tramerye. Alfred A. Knopf.* 259 *pp. Price* $2.75 *postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE IS a great tale simply told. Oil is empire, and the struggle for oil reaches around the earth. Oil is not only empire; it is almost the sum and substance of contemporary industrial life. Take oil out and industrial mechanism would disintegrate. A fundamental revolution has been taking place in the last fifty years—a revolution as basically important, one might almost say, as the invention of the steam engine and the development of coal, a kind of silent revolution, which crept into the crevices of industrial life all over the world. Coal

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is such a cumbersome thing. It is hard to get, hard to handle, hard to transport, and leaves a trail of black smoke behind it wherever it is used, soot and dirt. But oil, that is easily gotten. It comes itself once you drive your wells deep enough; it is easy to transport; it is easy to use; and you get more than twice the energy per ton from it. Oil is the sinew of modern war. The fleets of the world depend upon oil, and in the last war, it was oil that made Allied victory possible. As is well said, "We swam to victory on a sea of oil." A great part of the German campaigns in Roumania, the Caucasus, in Eastern Galicia, and the Brest-Litovsk treaty were determined by the need for oil. And so the story goes. Oil is more precious than gold. But it is limited in quantity, and wherever you tap it and let it flow it ultimately flows out, and you remain with your empty and useless mechanism. This book recites the tale of the struggle between the Standard Oil Company and the Dutch Shell. That is the main (*Continued on page* 720)

Endowment Earnings

(*Continued from page* 686)

institutions but which were also to have a flexible discretion in additional spending.

The present status of the personalized foundation movement represents these two latter stages of Mr. Carnegie's thinking. Public institutions that parallel the Carnegie personal institutions are steadily appearing, like the recent Hershey gift for an orphan asylum; and there is a noticeable growth of the second stage of generalized funds, like the Wilder Charity of St. Paul, the Rockefeller, Sage and Commonwealth Foundations in New York, and the Wieboldt Foundation in Chicago.

The Community Trusts

In addition to this growth of the endowment idea the foundation principle has swept into even wider conceptions in the last few years, as evidenced by the rise of the impersonalized community foundations. Since the Cleveland Trust Company announced the first of these, the Cleveland Foundation, sixty of them have been launched throughout the country by trust companies in various cities. They are controlled either by a single trust company or by a union of different trust companies for the purpose. The Cleveland Foundation is of the former kind, the New York Community Trust and that in Indianapolis of the latter.

Leaders in the movement proclaim that it offers to the person of smaller means the same advantages that the personal foundation has offered to the man of immense wealth. Nor does it exclude the man of immense wealth if he desires to make use of it. The trust company, acting in a fiduciary capacity, will protect the investment of the funds and a distributing committee of eminent persons appointed in part by the financial institutions involved and in part by public officials will guarantee wisdom in the social application of the trust.

The use of trust funds may be designated or undesignated although most of the trust agreements reserve the right to change the purpose if conditions warrant. Much has been made by the promoters of these funds of the argument of the so-called "dead hand" upon endowments, and it is not necessary to dwell upon it here. A more interesting inquiry is whether these funds are likely to succeed and whether they are introducing new and useful methods of securing trust funds in a field that is poverty-stricken for methods. The evidence as to probable success is not overwhelming on either side. Few of the community foundations have much money as yet; they are still young. In Boston the Permanent Charity Fund is reported to have secured some four and a half million dollars. We do not know whether the money would have been left to the public without the foundation. Neither do we know that it would have been left with any less wisdom without the foundation. It is interesting to note that the trustees of the Boston movement are giving the earnings upon their funds to the established agencies of Boston, a skilful and discreet disposition even if it does deny us a laboratory experiment for testing the validity of the contention used so widely by com-

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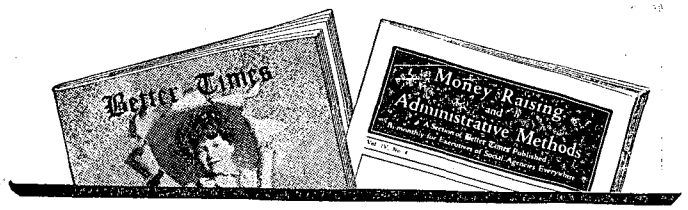

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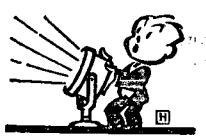

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City .....State.....

munity foundations that their distributing committees are more astute bodies for the direction of wealth into social uses than the old-fashioned agencies. This concern has simply turned to the old-fashioned bodies and let it go at that.

The community trusts have not as yet used new methods of securing money. They have advertised both in the press and directly. While advertising for bequests is by no means new, they have done more of it in a short space of time than anyone else. It is worth noting that Boston social service agencies have advertised for trust funds for years. A few of the foundations have tried a little spasmodic direct salesmanship, but not enough of it yet to produce any noticeable results. As businessmen these foundation people have not as yet shown many evidences of being "go-getters"; they have more generally adopted watchful waiting as their policy.

The community foundation is still largely experimental. It will get money, but whether it will get it any more rapidly than other methods remains to be seen. It will without doubt free many bequests from unfortunate restrictions, because it has set its mind firmly in that direction. Whether or not its claim will work out that it can administer unrestricted wealth more wisely for social purposes than the established order of social work is still an unanswered problem. The business men who want to get these trust funds into the keeping of their own companies have said they will administer funds more successfully than others have done. Having made the claim they will be on their toes to make good. Which means, of course, that they will be compelled to turn to the social brains of the country to pull them through.

Room to Grow

Such is the story of the endowment. The East, and in particular Boston and Philadelphia teach us that tradition and habit breed endowments, just as Cleveland and Cincinnati teach us the influence of tradition on voluntary annual gifts. We must go to work consciously to create these habits in our other cities. Boston again says, "Cast your bread upon the waters in long-continued advertising and watch it return to you." Boston teaches us that if many families of means can be interested for a long time in single institutions these agencies will profit from an increasing number of bequests of all sizes. Hospitals, children's agencies, colleges and other institutions indicate from the frequency of memorial gifts for special rooms, special scholarships, special buildings and the like, that there has been more of love and less of obligation in the endowment gift of the past than has prevailed in the field of the voluntary annual gift. The alumni funds and the endowment campaigns of colleges teach us that organized salesmanship is possible and profitable, at least when the object to be endowed is loved and respected by the group to which the appeal is made. And the community foundation teaches us that the number of individual institutional endowments given for purposes that do not yield social good commensurate with the investment may be reduced in the future.

The endowment is charged with a highly personal element. It may be love for an institution, or for a person, or just plain vanity, but there is almost always a master note of deep sentiment. I am not sure that the community foundation has yet caught this note. The movement will have to, because it is a dominant motif; it is an admirable motif; and it is a motif that not infrequently makes straight for a foolish use of the money. Excessive skill will be required to harness it and to "gentle it."

These, then, are the threads which the social financier must weave into the fabric of his coming movement to increase social revenues by speeding up the flow of funds for investment. His community funds are teaching people to give in ever-expanding numbers. Many of them who acquire the habit will be led automatically into a desire to give endowment funds. The problem is to put momentum into the process and to control it. It is the business of the social financier to give every help possible to the new community foundations, to push their claims diligently, and to organize also the existing institutions for a more vigorous, more intelligent solicitation of endowment funds for themselves.

WILLIAM J. NORTON

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THE FORUM

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An unusual psychological study. A story of love—a novel marriage—written with the searching realism and power that have made Miss Hurst unique in her own field
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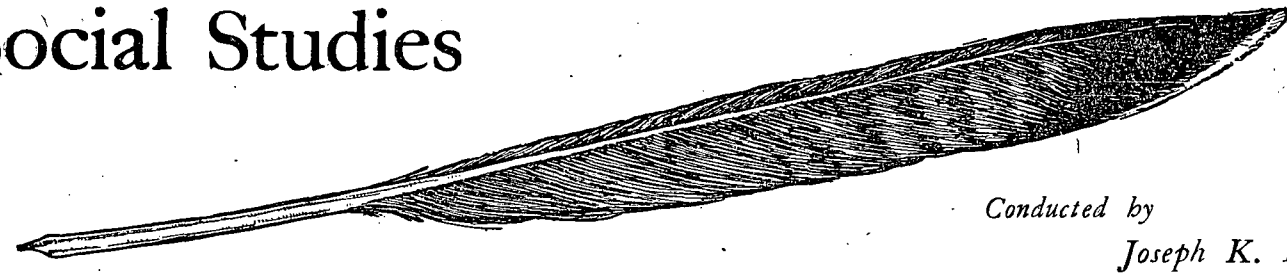
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

Belonging to Too Many Groups

EVERY distinctive group relationship or membership tends to develop some distinctive phase of the member's personality. Membership in a single group tends to make the member compactly unified, but narrow, conceited, dogmatic. Membership in a number of groups tends to tear these narrow conceits to shreds, but at the expense of the unity of the personality. In the primitive group world, the growing individual was too compactly confined within the limits of one or a few groups: this fact accounts for the solidarity and the stagnation of most of that life. In the modern world, the competition of all sorts of groups for the time and interest and energy of all sorts of members makes the development of any sort of organized personality almost impossible for very large numbers of young people. Though many areas of our modern world are still quite primitive in their provision for a varied and interesting group life, other areas have gone to the opposite extreme. The modern city knows many individuals who live in a perpetual round of efforts to meet the exacting demands made upon them by the many groups to which they either belong or attempt to adhere. "Living" under such conditions becomes a "merry whirl"; but "life" is gradually diminished to the vanishing point!

The career of the high-school girl offers an illuminating series of illustrations of this fact. Her life is a continuous round of highly exacting stimulations calling to her from the various competing groups that have become aware of her existence. Her home has some claim upon her interest and attention. The school expects her to acknowledge its right to her major energies and efforts. Various class and athletic groups within the school offer her desirable opportunities. Social groups both within and without the school expect her to save some time for dances and parties. The church and the Sunday School would be glad to have an hour or two each week. These are a few of the groups that take it for granted that they are entitled to some share in her day.

Each of these sets up certain exactions: she must dress properly for each group; she must have the right frame of mind for each; she must have the manners appropriate to each; she must learn the lessons each would teach; she must give up a part, at least, of her personality to each and identify herself, to that extent, with each.

In these ways, her life is made very much more exciting and interesting: each of these groups brings her something of a new world of interests—new friends, new ideas and ideals, new vistas of experience. Without the aid of these competing groups, her life would settle down into an unendurable routine.

In comparison with the light and color and variety of this group life, the school books have little to offer that is attractive. She may get her lessons, it is true; but the reason is not always to be found in the intrinsic interest or worth of those lessons. The college student finds a similar round of group life rather more attractive than the "grind" of studies. The legend that is said to linger about the Harvard campus that "A gentleman's grade is C," takes cognizance of the fact that the real man of the world must know the world whether he knows the books or not; and the best protection of the weak against the beguiling temptations of the books is to make any higher grade than C a reproach.

But the temptations in the opposite direction are not without appealing strength. The tendency to join groups may have to be stimulated, at first. Most of us are still primitive enough, in youth, to hesitate about taking on the new group, with all that that may mean of readjustment. But after that first primitive inertia is overcome, the tendency may be easily accelerated. Industrial connections call us into many new relationships: self-interest drags us into new groups. "Politics makes queer bed-fellows." Religion ties us up with a new assortment of more or less endurable individuals. Every community has a large number of "benevolent" groups and good-fellow groups: groups for action and groups for emotion. And every community probably has at least one man or woman who is known as a "joiner." More would probably achieve the same reputation were the day longer, or the purse larger.

Every such membership in a new group brings some distinctive new touch to the personality of the individual. The group life seizes upon that part of his nature which responded to the group appeal, lifts it out of the inert mass of his sluggish personality, gives it color, warmth, life, appreciation, and enables it to grow: on that side of his nature, he becomes a more compete human being. If he can find his way completely around the range of humanizing groups, he will thus find his way around and into all distinctive phases of humanity: he will become a complete human being. At least he will have all the facets of the complete human being.

Every such membership in a new group brings some distinctive new development to the personality of the individual. Up to a somewhat uncertain point! The limits of the profitable expansion of human nature are finite. Beyond these limits, the individual ceases to grow by taking on new memberships: he begins to dissipate his energies, to disintegrate and to deteriorate. The "joiner" has passed the point of maximum advantage, and is on the disintegrating scale. Every new group that takes him in but adds to his more complete demoralization. He has no time nor energy nor mind for anything that the group might profit him in personality: he takes in the "horse play" of the new group, and misses all its vital qualities

Human living appears here, as everywhere, not as a finished, stable and secure affair; but as the tentative, unsecure, vital thing it is. Human personality lies dull and drab save as it finds its various facets in the color and variety of many human groups. But if it undertakes to find itself in too many such groups, it begins to lose its color and substantiality and to fade out into superficiality—into thin air. Human life is very real: it comes to maximum reality when it grows in the rich soil of adequate group life. When that soil is either too rich or too poor, the resultant personality suffers accordingly. The "overgrouped" person is an inevitable product of the over-organized life of the modern city.

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

XIII. The World and America

Washington advised the young American republic to keep out of entangling alliances with peoples of other lands. That was in 1797. That was before the invention of the steamship, the telegraph and cable, the wireless; that was before the invention of "immigration," international trade and international credit. How many nationalities are represented among the inhabitants of the United States? Have these "nationals" given up all connections with their native lands? Should they do so? Will they do so? To what extent does the presence of these "national" groups within America constitute entangling alliances with the various nations represented?

1. Inescapable Facts

• What have been the effects of world travel and intercommunication upon the old barriers between peoples and nations? Are there, now, anywhere in the world, completely isolated peoples? For example, what nations and peoples were engaged in the World War? Is there any way by means of which the peoples of the world can be kept from meeting?

What shall they do with one another as they meet? Can the various peoples who come to America learn to live together as neighbors? Can the various nations of the world learn to live together as neighbors? Would it be advisable for each nation to build itself in behind walls, like the ancient Chinese wall? If the nations become too neighborly, will not the stocks become mixed? Will not the "pure stocks" eventually disappear? Is this an end to be desired? How can it be prevented?

2. The Next World War

• To what extent did the "war to end wars" succeed in its aims? Is there any present talk about further wars? Do responsible people feel any fear of further impending wars? If so, what are the bases of these fears? Do they grow out of racial and national antagonisms? Or do they grow out of economic interests?

What is the talk in your community about this problem of more wars? If there is talk of the likelihood of more wars, what is the attitude of the community toward the subject? Is war favored or is it frowned upon? Are some wars favored? What sorts? Why?

3. America's Share in World Problems

• Was America drawn into the last war, or did we deliberately go in? Can America keep out of world affairs? Has America any "business" having a share in European problems? Have those problems any effect upon our own peace? Or prosperity ? Is it America's business, now, to be preparing for world peace, or for world war? Does America's interest lie in the direction of peace, or of war?

Is America an imperialistic nation? Is there any conflict between imperialism and democracy? If America is moving in the direction of imperialism, what effect will that have upon our internal life? How will it affect our schools? Our churches? Our industry? Our politics and statesmanship?

Is it possible to develop democracy amongst so many varied types of people as are found in an American city? Must democracy be everywhere like the American pattern? What would be the advantage, or the disadvantage, to our American democracy of the development of other great democracies in the world; for example, in Russia, Germany and China?

References:

See the Reader's Guide to Magazines, under such topics as The New China; Chinese Republic; Germany since 1918; Russia.

Horace Kallen, The Structure of a Lasting Peace.

Questions on Current Issues

The Passing Show

A year or two ago, casual conversations frequently turned upon what was then called "the growing gulf between the government and the people." What was then the expression of a sort of resignation has now turned into a pervading cynicism: government and people are closer together than for a long time; but it is a sort of closeness too much akin to that old familiarity that bred contempt. Some of the bravest defenders of the nation against insidious and undermining forces from without, such as bolshevism, internationalism, and the League of Nations, have now turned out to be "borers from within." Motives have emerged: we must, for example, keep out all things alien so that our children, or at least the children of the poor, may be assured of good jobs in the mills, and so that native Americans may have exclusive access to our public domain. America for Americans! American children for American mills! American resources for American patriots! The question, What shall we do about it? is both "inconvenient" and useless. Why should anyone do anything about it?

1. What Will the Political Parties Do About It?

• "A political platform," said Chauncey Depew, once upon a time, "is like the platform of a street car: it is to get in on, not to stand on." But the parties are speaking of their platforms as "covenants." What is a covenant? How many parties are implied in a covenant? If a political platform is a "covenant," who are the parties to it? How can such a covenant be enforced? Are the parties who enter a covenant ever concerned as to the terms of the contract? Are the terms of importance to more than one side? Should the makers of the covenant be held to the terms? Should such questions as child labor, natural resources, and immigration be regarded as political questions? Is there any possibility of raising them out of politics up to the level of research and broadly intelligent handling? What could political parties do with *facts?*

2. What Will the Congress Do About It?

• How much of what is now happening in Congress is for the purpose of covering old tracks? How much of it is "whitewashing," or "drawing a herring across the trail"? What keeps Congress from submitting a child labor amendment? What keeps Congress from passing an intelligent immigration bill? What will Congress do with the criminals in the oil controversy if, and when, any are found? Has Congress any power to act?

3. What Will the People Do About It?

• Is there any difference between "the people" and "the political parties"? If so, what and where is that difference? What do "the people" think about the child labor question? About immigration? About oil and our other natural resources? Do they think it "smart" that a man should be able to "get away with" a hundred million? Do they say: "Anyone else would have done the same thing if he had had the chance"? Sir Boyle Roche, a British parliament member, is said to have argued once in Parliament: "Why should we do anything for posterity? What has posterity ever done for us?" Is any of that spirit to be found amongst "the people" of America? What chance have we of escaping from the cynicism that has risen out of these derelictions of officials and the inertia of government? Do "the people" care about questions of this sort? What are "the people" going to do about these public problems?

References:

pp. 667, 671, 673, 676, 677.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

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COMMUNICATIONS

To Achieve a New Peace

TO THE EDITOR: Survey readers are well aware of conditions in Europe. More men are under arms than in August 1914. In Germany, millions are on the edge of starvation. In France the fall of the franc is the sure index of approaching catastrophe. In Great Britain the burden of taxation and unemployment have changed the aspect of society.

From all sides comes the demand for immediate action to save European civilization. The report of the Dawes committee is opening the way to better understanding of conditions in France and Germany. This is only a step. Economic and political security can be reached only through new international agreements. The United States, the trustee of the wealth of the world, must take the initiative.

The following resolution has been sent to the President by the Secretary for the United States of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.

Resolved: that the President of the United States is hereby urged to call a conference of debtor and creditor nations to make definite settlement in concrete terms of Reparations, Interallied Debts and Disarmament in order to achieve a New Peace.

Will the readers of The Survey write to the President in support of this resolution?

When he knows that enlightened public opinion is backing him, the conference will be called. Now is the time.

MARY H. INGHAM
Chairman National Committee International Congress, 1924 Women's International League for Peace and Freedom

So Say the Rest of Us

TO THE EDITOR: My compliments to Martha Bensley Bruère on The Barbecue. It is the best, cleverest, and most adroit piece of interpretative reporting I have seen in years—deliciously humorous, intensely human, and tremendously effective!

HUGH F. FOX
New York

Book Reviews

(*Continued from page 715*)

part of the book—a struggle that has ranged the wide world over with the Standard beaten to a standstill, and with the Dutch Shell supported by the British government, as against the Standard Oil supported by the American government. The meaning of it all is probably that whereas the United States only has about one-seventh of the oil resources of the world it uses one-half of its total production. We don't produce today enough oil for our own needs. Without Mexican oil the American Merchant Marine would go a-begging. The rest of the story is in the book, and the reader who wants to understand the sinews of imperialism had better read it.

FRANK TANNENBAUM

DRINK IN 1914-1922, *by Arthur Shadwell. Longmans, Green & Co. 245 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TO AN American reader the matter of outstanding interest in this history of drink is the careful consideration which the British government gave to the problem of excessive drinking before taking action. Although it was generally recognized in the emergencies of war, that the British workman and fighting man was less efficient as a result of drinking, it was equaly recognized that measures would have to be found "which yet leave an amount of liberty sufficient to avoid a widespread revolt against the law or a resort to wholesale evasion." The principal measures used were (1) curtailment of the hours of sale, (2) limitation of supply and diminution of strength, (3) increased prices. Police and medical records show that there was an improvement in public (*Continued on page 723*)

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CHILD WELFARE AND PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING INSTITUTE: Madison, Wisc. March 17-21. Mrs. Mary P. Morgan, U. S. Childrens' Bureau, Capitol Annex, Madison, Wisc.

GEORGIA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Atlanta, Ga. March 18-20. Burr Blackburn, Sec'y., State Council of Social Agencies, Atlanta, Ga.

COMMISSION ON THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE: New York. March 19-20. Caroline W. Chase, Federal Council of Churches, 105 E. 22nd St., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Charlotte. March 25-27. Secretary, Miss Minnie Harman, A. R. C., Durham, N. C.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS' NATIONAL CONFERENCE: Kansas City, Mo. March 29-April 4. Local Secretary, Miss Janet McKellar, Red Cross Health Center, 408 E. 11th St., Kansas City, Mo.

TENNESSEE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Nashville. April 2-4. President, Mrs. Aaron Green, Shelbyville, Tenn.

NEW JERSEY STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION CONFERENCE: Plainfield, N. J. April 5. Sec'y, Marie Louis, Muhlenberg Hospital, Plainfield.

ALL PHILADELPHIA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Philadelphia. April 7-9. Sherman C. Kingsley, Welfare Federation, 15th and Locust Sts., Phila.

CONFERENCE OF SOUTHERN MOUNTAIN WORKERS: Knoxville, Tenn. April 8-10. Executive Secretary, Mrs. John C. Campbell, 7 Hastings Lane, West Medford, Mass.

TRI-STATE CHILD WELFARE CONFERENCE COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN: Worcester, Mass. April 9. Secretary, Mrs. Edward Friedman, Chairman, Council Jewish Women, Springfield, Mass.

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE: Atlantic City. April 14-16. Dr. F. W. Maroney, Texas Ave. School, Atlantic City, N. J.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON PRISONS AND PRISON LABOR: New York City. April 14. Secretary, Miss Julia K. Jaffray, 2 Rector St., N. Y. City.

OHIO STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Columbus. April 15-17. Secretary, Miss Lucile Grapes, 797 S. Fulton St., Columbus.

VIRGINIA HEALTH AND SANITARY OFFICERS: Richmond. April-Middle. Director, Dr. E. G. Williams, Richmond.

LOUISIANA STATE CONFERENCE FOR SOCIAL BETTERMENT: New Orleans. April 20-23. Secretary, Miss Willes Sullivant, 3512 St. Charles Ave., New Orleans, La.

FLORIDA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: West Palm Beach. April 20-23. Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Cooley, A. R. C., Miami.

NEW YORK STATE MEDICAL SOCIETY: Rochester. April 21-22.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN: Washington, D. C. April 21-25. Secretary, 1634 I St., Washington.

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Annual Convention: Providence, Rhode Island. April 23-26. The Religious Education Ass'n. 308 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS: Buffalo, N. Y. April 24-29. Local Secretary, Miss Louise Machael, 625 Delaware Ave., Buffalo.

GIRL SCOUTS NATIONAL CONVENTION: Chicago. April 29-May 2. Director, Mrs. Jane Deeter Rippin, 189 Lexington Ave., New York City.

Y. W. C. A. BI-ENNIAL CONFERENCE: New York City. April 30-May 6. Secretary, Mrs. Katherine Newkirk, 600 Lexington Ave., New York City.

WOMEN'S INTERNATIONAL LEAGUE FOR PEACE AND FREEDOM: Fourth International Congress, Washington, D. C. May 1-7. National Secretary, Amy Woods, Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.

CONNECTICUT STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Bridgeport. May 4-7. Secretary, Clarence King, 991 Broad St., Bridgeport, Conn.

NEW ENGLAND HEALTH INSTITUTE: Boston, Mass. May 5-10. Director, Dr. Eugene R. Kelley, State House, Boston 9, Mass.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION: St. Paul, Minn. May 5-10. Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W. Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION ANNUAL CONFERENCE: Atlanta, Ga. May 5-12. Publicity Director, Dr. Philip P. Jacobs, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION, ANNUAL CONFERENCE: Chicago. May 19-23. Secretary, Olive West, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

CALIFORNIA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Long Beach. May 25-29. Secretary, Mrs. Anita Eldridge, 436 O'Farrell St., San Francisco.

VIRGINIA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Annual Meeting. Roanoke, Va. May 27, 28, 29. Secretary, Blanche F. Webb, R. N., 300 W. York St., Norfolk, Va.

EMPLOYED OFFICERS OF THE Y. M. C. A., TRIENNIAL CONVENTION: Blue Ridge, N. C. May 27-30. J. W. Pontius, Y. M. C. A., Columbus.

OREGON STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Portland. May 30-June 1. Ex. Secretary, Miss Alita Brownlee, Madison Bldg., Portland, Oregon.

BOY'S CLUB FEDERATION: Pittsburgh, Pa., June 2-5. Secretary, C. J. Atkinson, 3037 Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City.

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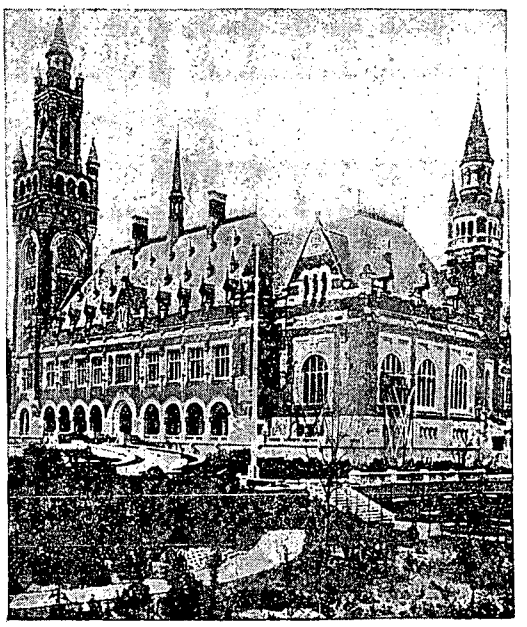

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—Miss M. A. Cannon, president, 105 East 22nd Street, New York City; Miss Lena R. Waters, executive secretary, The Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md. Organization to promote development of social work in hospitals and dispensaries. Annual meeting with National Conference of Social Work.

AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (formerly American Child Hygiene Association and Child Health Organization of America)—Headquarters, 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Administrative Offices, 370 7th Ave., New York. Herbert Hoover, pres.; L. Emmett Holt, M.D.; Livingston Farrand, M.D.; Thomas D. Wood, M.D.; 1st, 2nd, 3rd vice-presidents, respectively; Corcoran Thom, treas.; Philip Van Ingen, M.D., sec'y. To promote health among children from conception to maturity—this to be accomplished through cooperation with parents, doctors, nurses, teachers, and other health workers: by dissemination of scientific information and teaching methods in schools, through conferences, addresses, pamphlets, publicity material, and a monthly magazine, "Mother and Child."

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $3.00 includes "The Country Life Bulletin."

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Frank J. Osborne, exec. sec'y; 370 Seventh Ave. New York. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publication free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases: to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

THE CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C .C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A League of children's agencies to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches and other groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—305 W. 98th Street, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Harry Sternberger, ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.
Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

COMMUNITY SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. A national civic movement for promoting citizenship through right use of leisure. It will, on request, help local communities work out leisure time programs. H. S. Braucher, secretary.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 30 Protestant denominations. Rev. Chas. S. Macfarland, Rev. S. M. Cavert, gen'l sec'ys; 105 E. 22nd Street, New York.
Commission on the Church and Social Service—Rev. Worth M. Tippy, exec. sec'y; Rev. F. Ernest Johnson, research, sec'y; Agnes H. Campbell, research ass't; Inez M. Cavert, librarian.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y. Tel. Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; Treasurer, B. H. Fancher; General Sec'y, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 1 East 104th Street, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.—Chas. F. Powlison, gen. sec'y; 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Originates and publishes exhibit material which visualizes the principles and conditions affecting the health, well being and education of children. Cooperates with educators, public health agencies, and all child welfare groups in community, city or state-wide service through exhibits, child welfare campaigns, etc.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE—Dr. William H. Welch, pres.; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, med. dir.; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, sec'y; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, nervous and mental disorders, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, criminology, psychiatric social service, backward children, surveys, state societies. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $ .25 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Grace Abbott, president, Washington, D. C.; W. H. Farker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-first annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Toronto, Canada, June 25th to July 2nd, 1924. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, gen'l sec'y. Promotes legislation for enlightened standards for women and minors in industry and for honest products; minimum wage commissions, eight hour day, no night work, federal regulation food and packing industries; "honest cloth" legislation. Publications available.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS—Robert A. Woods, sec'y; 20 Union Park, Boston. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work, seek the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

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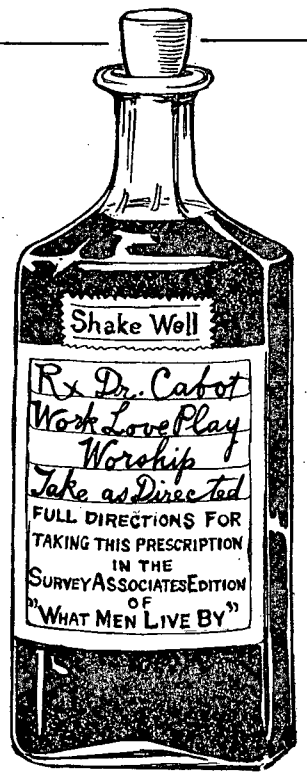
PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION LEAGUE—To secure representation for all. C. G. Hoag, sec'y, 1417 Locust St., Philadelphia. Membership, $2.00, entitles to quarterly P. R. Review.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Departments: Charity Organization, Child-Helping, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, prin.; Warren Logan, treas.; A. L. Holsey, acting sec'y, Tuskegee, Ala.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—Spencer Miller, Jr., sec'y; 476 West 24th St. A clearing-house for Workers' Education.



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Book Reviews

(*Continued from page 720*)

order and public health in so far as these are affected by drink and that from 1914 to 1918 convictions for drunkenness in England and Wales fell from 183,828 to 29,075.

A. B.

FOREIGN CREDIT FACILITIES IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Leland R. Robinson. Longmans Green & Co. 229 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PLUTARCH LIED, *by Jean de Pierrefeu. Alfred A. Knopf. 307 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE SAINT AND THE SWORD, *by Herbert Booth. George H. Doran Co. 344 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE FIRST TIME IN HISTORY, *by Anna Louise Strong. Boni & Liveright. 249 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN OUTLAW'S DIARY, *The Commune, by Cecile Tormay. Robert M. McBride & Co. 233 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ANGLO-SAXON AND JEW, *Jewish Questions of the Day, by Louis I. Newman. 103 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE FABRIC OF EUROPE, *by Harold Stannard. Alfred A. Knopf. 260 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Other Books Received

DRAMATIS PERSONAE, *by Arthur Symons. Bobbs-Merrill Co. 358 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

REMEMBERED YESTERDAYS, *by Robert Underwood Johnson. Little, Brown & Co. 624 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AGAINST THIS AGE, *by Maxwell Bodenheim. Boni & Liveright. 75 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

PLAY FAIR, *by John M. Cooper. The Catholic Education Press, Washington. 246 pp. Price $.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TOLD BY AN IDIOT, *by Rose Macaulay. Boni & Liveright. 340 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ONE MAN'S LIFETIME 1840-1920, *by Willard A. Burnap. Burnap Estate, Fergus Falls, Minnesota. 461 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

WASHINGTON THE YOUNG LEADER, *by George William Gerwig. Charles Scribner's Sons. 144 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

LES MISERABLES, *by Victor Hugo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 233 pp. Price $.88 postpaid of The Survey.*

POEMS, *by William Wordsworth. Charles Scribner's Sons. 453 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

JIM AND PEGGY AT APPLE-TOP FARM, *by Walter Collins O'Kane. Macmillan Co. 237 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

HAWAIIAN HISTORICAL LEGENDS, *by W. D. Westervelt. Fleming H. Revell Co. 215 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

RAPTURE, *by Richmond B. Barrett. Boni & Liveright. 310 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE OWL'S NEST, *by Crosbie Garstin. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 392 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IMPERIAL CONTROL OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN THE THIRTEEN AMERICAN COLONIES, 1684-1776, *by George A. Washburne. Longmans Green & Co. 191 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE SNOB, *by Helen R. Martin. Dodd, Mead & Co. 391 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

REJUVENATION AND THE PROLONGATION OF HUMAN EFFICIENCY, *by Paul Kammerer. Boni & Liveright. 252 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ENGLISH COLONIES IN GUIANA AND ON THE AMAZON, 1604—1668, *by James A. Williamson. Oxford University Press. 191 pp. Price $4.20 postpaid of The Survey.*

RAW PRODUCTS OF THE WORLD, VOL. I, AFRICA, *by Ralph Davol. Davol Publishing Company, Taunton, Mass. 264 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

CRITICAL EPOCHS IN HISTORY, *by D. C. Somervell. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 427 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SOME WORTHIES OF READING, *by John James Cooper. Swarthmore Press. 156 pp. Price $1.80 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION 1764—1788, *by S. E. Morison. Oxford University Press, 365 pp. Price $3.00 of The Survey.*

THIRTY-TWO PASSAGES FROM THE ODYSSEY, *by C. D. Locock. George Allen & Unwin. 84 pp. Price $ .84 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CONQUEST OF THE SOUTHWEST, *by Elton Raymond Shaw. Shaw Publishing Co. 138 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

BRAINS, DOLLARS AND PROGRESS, *by Elton Raymond Shaw. Shaw Publishing Co. 63 pp. Price $ .75 postpaid of The Survey.*

JUDD & JUDD, *by Nolbro Bartley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 365 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE INTERPRETER'S HOUSE, *by Struthers Burt. Charles Scribner's Sons. 445 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE DEBATER'S GUIDE, *by John H. Arnold. Handy Book Corporation, Harrisburg, Pa. 315 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

YOU CAN CHANGE IT (THOUGH YOU WON'T), *by Charles Lawson. D. Appleton Co. 215 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

NOT WANTED, *by Jesse Lynch Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 83 pp. Price $ .75 postpaid of The Survey.*

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WANTED: October first, assistant to the Headworker of a settlement in an eastern city. Salary $1,200 and partial maintenance. Settlement experience necessary. 4741 SURVEY.

WANTED case worker to engage in family rehabilitation. State experience, salary expected, religion, references. Write Family Welfare Bureau, Columbus, Georgia.

WANTED: Woman who is capable of taking charge of Children's Home, containing about thirty children under six years of age. H. Hubman, 17 E. State St., Columbus, Ohio.

GRADUATE NURSES, dietitians, laboratory technicians for excellent hospital positions everywhere. Write for free book now. Aznoe's Central Registry for Nurses, 30 N. Mich. Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

WANTED: In Eastern city, Jewish case work supervisor, capable of training workers and able to make effective community contacts. 4694 SURVEY.

MAN AND WIFE as resident workers in Neighborhood House in Pennsylvania mining community. Will pay $2800 to couple. Living quarters provided—also maid service. 4747 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED social service worker required to take charge Educational Center, Council of Jewish Women, Seattle, Washington. Communicate with Mrs. Julius Shafer, 801 35th Ave.

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, Jewish, for newly organized Young Women's Hebrew Association, Detroit. Position now open. Good salary including residence. Experienced community center worker preferred. Mrs. Robinson, 89 Rowena Street, Detroit, Michigan.

WANTED: District Supervisor for Jewish family case agency in a large eastern city. Good salary. Opportunities for promotion. 4748 SURVEY.

COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICE. Social workers, secretaries, superintendents, matrons, housekeepers, dietitians, cafeteria managers. Miss Richards' Bureau, 68 Barnes Street, Providence, R. I.

WORKERS WANTED

COTTAGE MOTHER, over thirty, for progressive Jewish child caring institution. No cooking, maid service. Must be well bred, well educated and a good manager. Apply, Superintendent, Jewish Children's Society, Levindale, Station E, Baltimore, Md.

WANTED: An experienced hospital social worker to take charge of Cardiac Clinic in a Chicago Dispensary. 4752 SURVEY.

TEACHERS WANTED

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

SITUATIONS WANTED

YOUNG woman desires position personnel or employment in industry, department store or large corporation. Experience, personnel, investigation, industrial nursing. 4743 SURVEY.

WOMAN of refinement wants position, either children's or girls' institution in the South. Have had five years' experience. Best references. 4758 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT or Executive. Woman with successful hospital experience, covering every branch of lay service, wants position as executive of class A institution. 4742 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED social worker desires connection with Employment Department of large industrial plant. Best of references. 4744 SURVEY.

HUSBAND AND WIFE, college and social work training, 15 years' experience as executives, familiar with organizing, publicity, raising of funds, with special interest in community and delinquency problems in all aspects, successful writers and speakers, wish to develop or take charge of work. 4711 SURVEY.

WOMAN with successful experience in children's work desires resident position in Institution. College graduate. 4723 SURVEY.

WOMAN, educated, experienced, desires position teaching sewing or assistant to superintendent or matron in Institution or Children's Home. 4746 SURVEY.

WOMAN with eight years' successful experience in settlement work desires a change. Protestant, executive ability. Capable head worker. 4735 SURVEY.

SITUATIONS WANTED

COLLEGE WOMAN, writer, speaker, understands publicity and is a successful organizer, wishes connection with social service organization or publication. 4729 Survey.

CASE WORKER, experienced, highest references, available soon. Would consider temporary or substitute work, special investigations or critical record studies. 4745 SURVEY.

MANAGING Matron or Superintendent Woman (35), Jewish, fifteen years' successful experience in child-caring institutions, is open for proposition. Is household economist and good organizer. Can head settlement. College graduate. 4753 SURVEY

MARRIED MAN, college graduate, eleven years' experience with Children's Aid Organizations, accustomed to public speaking, ambitious and progressive, desires executive position. 4754 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE (Jewish) many years' experience in Child Welfare Work in all its phases. Is of known reputation and standing. Would consider superintendency of Orphanage or Correctional School. Will be available May 1st. 4728 SURVEY.

RECENT university graduate, 27 years, capable, is desirous of connecting with some Jewish Social Agency. 4751 SURVEY.

WANTED: Collaborating or reference work for author. Access to several fine libraries. Experienced. Mrs. L. Porter Riemer, 122 Westland Ave., West Hartford, Conn.

WANTED: Position as Hostess in Hospital, Hotel or School. Best of references. 4749 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE position in child-caring institution by man, 31. Ten years' experience. Progressive, efficient, excellent disciplinarian. Go anywhere. 4755 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT'S position in child-caring institution by woman with wide experience in social service, child welfare and delinquent girls. 4756 SURVEY

AN EXPERIENCED WOMAN of middle age desirous of making a change about May first, would like position as superintendent of Children's Home. References 4757 SURVEY.

WANTED: Position as Personnel Manager. Best of references. 4750 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT of Jewish Orphan Asylum is available April 1st for similar position or other executive position. College graduate, 13 years' experience in child welfare institutions. Expert in all phases of institutional administration. 4759 SURVEY.

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PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

AN EPISODE in History of a Connecticut Institution. By A. K. Rogers. City Printing Company, Inc., New Haven.

THE PLACE OF THE NUTRITION WORKER IN THE HEALTH PROGRAM. By Bailey B. Burritt. Reprinted from the Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 12, No. 12.

ADAPTATION OF THE CHILD HYGIENE PROGRAM TO LOCAL CONDITIONS. By Bailey B. Burritt. Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York City.

DISEAEE AS A FACTOR IN POVERTY. By Bailey B. Burritt. Reprinted from Hospital Social Service, Vol. 8. New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York City.

THE CAUSES FOR THE RECENT DECLINE IN TUBERCULOSIS AND THE OUTLOOK FOR THE FUTURE. By Louis I. Dublin. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York.

A STUDY OF THE GIFTED CHILDREN WHOSE SCHOOL PROGRESS WAS UNSATISFACTORY. By Dorothy Van Alstyne. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

ECONOMIC CONSIDERATION IN THE RESTATEMENT AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE LAW. By Robert L. Hale. Academy of Political Science, New York City.

LAWS PROVIDING FOR BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS. Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 343. Superintendent of Documents, Washington Government Printing Office.

THE TARIFF IN AN UNBALANCED WORLD. By Benjamin M. Anderson. The Chase Economic Bulletin, The Chase National Bank of the City of New York.

CHILDREN OF PRESCHOOL AGE IN GARY, INDIANA. By Elizabeth Hughes and Lydia Roberts. Bulletin of the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, No. 122. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, Government Printing Office.

SAVE AMERICA. Edited by Elizabeth Tilton. Woman's National Committee for Law Enforcement, 302 Ford Building, Boston. Price 25 cents. Quantity orders from M. H. Leavis, West Medford, Mass.

THE WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO. By Harold H. Swift and Nathaniel Butler. Broadcasted from the Daily News Station, Hotel LaSalle, Chicago.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE AMERICAN LABOR MOVEMENT. A Syllabus for Discussion Groups. By Harry W. Laidler. League for Industrial Democracy, 70 Fifth Ave., New York City. Price 10 cents.

LIFE IN A WEST VIRGINIA COAL FIELD. The American Constitutional Association. Phil M. Conley, Managing Director, Charleston, West Virginia.

SUBJECTS COMMITTEE PAPERS. Circulated in preparation of the World Conference on Faith and Order. General Secretary, Robert H. Gardiner, 174 Water Street, Gardiner, Maine.

AN EMPLOYEE'S VIEW OF HOW THE PLAN OF EMPLOYEE REPRESENTATION ON THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD ACTUALLY WORKS. By H. E. Core, General Chairman, Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen.

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